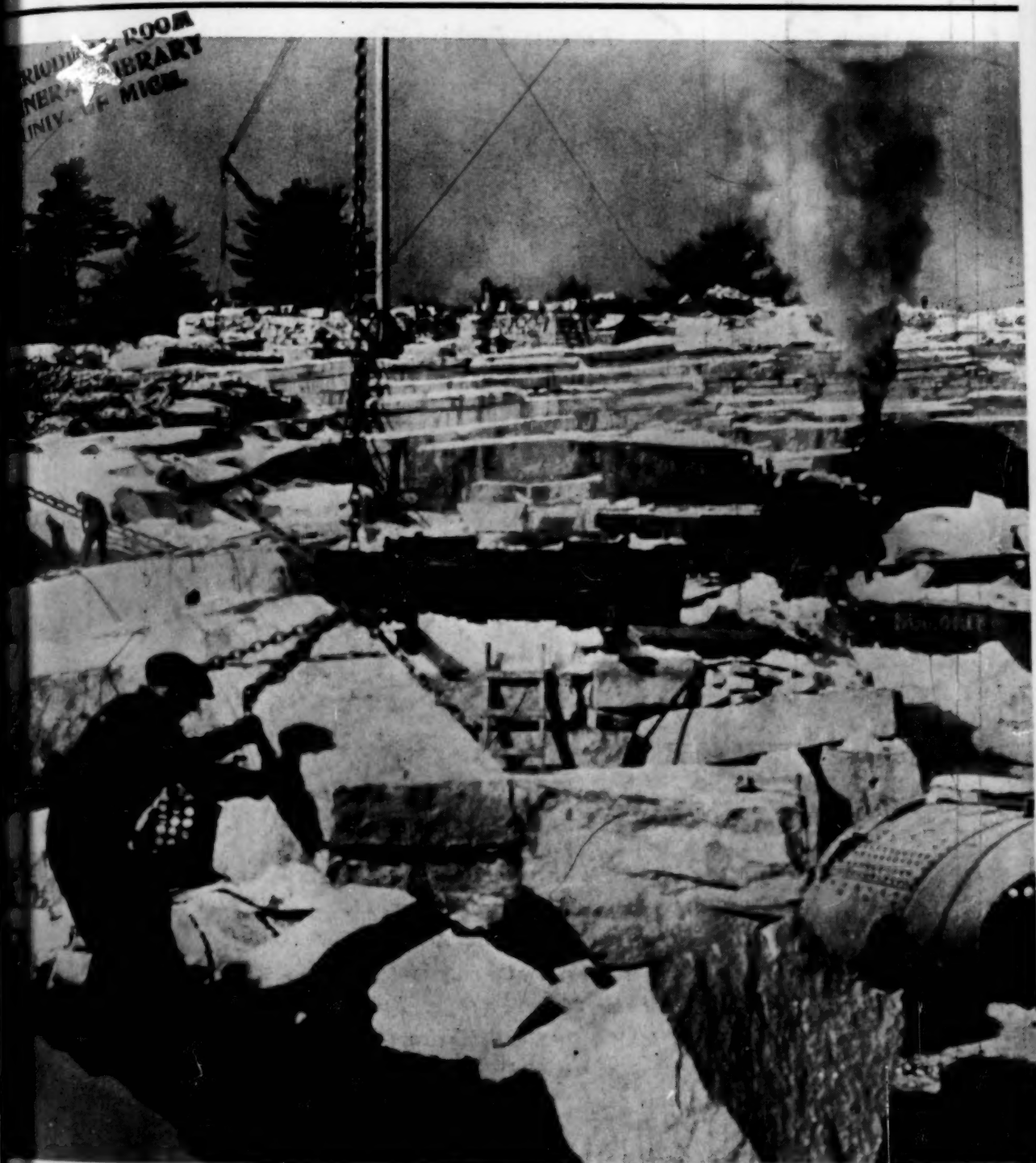


MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS



Loading Large Blocks in Granite Quarry

this issue . . . Labor Conditions in Hawaii • Life Insurance among Low-Income Families • Compensation for Unemployment in Industrial Disputes • Union Scales in the Printing Trades

DECEMBER 1940

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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MONTHLY

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DECEMBER 1940 Vol. 51, No. 6

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Page

Small-claims courts:	Page
Work of District of Columbia Small-Claims Court, 1939.....	1425
Labor laws and court decisions:	
Federal legislation concerning railroad employees.....	1428
Court decisions of interest to labor:	
Right of access to pay-roll records upheld.....	1436
Wage-hour law applicable to watchman performing additional duties.....	1437
Law requiring equal pay for women held constitutional.....	1437
"Labor dispute" under Washington anti-injunction law.....	1438
Michigan Mediation Act applicable to municipally owned public utility.....	1439
Social legislation in Finland.....	1440
Industrial disputes:	
Trend of strikes.....	1444
Strikes in August 1940.....	1445
Activities of the United States Conciliation Service, October 1940....	1454
Labor organizations:	
Annual conventions of the A. F. of L. and C. I. O.....	1456
Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, 1940.....	1462
Labor turn-over:	
Labor turn-over in manufacturing, September 1940.....	1463
Minimum wages and maximum hours:	
Effect of 40-hour week under wage and hour law.....	1469
Wages and hours of labor:	
Union wages and hours in the printing trades, June 1, 1940.....	1471
Earnings and hours in the embroideries industry, 1940.....	1503
Hourly earnings of labor in large and small enterprises.....	1525
Building operations:	
Summary of building construction in principal cities, October 1940....	1530
Permit fees for residential construction in the United States, 1940....	1535
Wholesale prices:	
Wholesale prices in October 1940.....	1539
Retail prices:	
Food prices in October 1940.....	1544
Coal prices in September 1940.....	1549
Cost of living:	
Changes in cost of living in the United States, September 15, 1940....	1552
Estimated intercity differences in cost of living, September 15, 1940..	1561
Cost of living in foreign countries.....	1564
Cost of living and retail prices in Buenos Aires, May 1940.....	1567
Low-cost government restaurant in Venezuela, 1939-40.....	1569
Trend of employment and pay rolls:	
Summary of reports for October 1940.....	1570
Detailed reports for business and industrial employment, September 1940.....	1577
Labor conditions in Latin America.....	1352, 1567, 1569
Recent publications of labor interest.....	1594

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR DECEMBER 1940

LABOR CONDITIONS IN HAWAII

PART 1.—POSITION OF LABOR IN THE ECONOMY OF THE TERRITORY ¹

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TO THE average person the word, Hawaii, conveys two ideas—a tourist paradise, and a powerful national outpost. These ideas, although not incorrect, are decidedly incomplete. This article is concerned with an aspect of the Islands, regarding which there are many misconceptions; with the life and conditions of those who work there, and their relations with the industries of the Territory.

The outstanding features of the framework within which modern Hawaii has grown have determined the extent and character of its development. These features are:

(1) Its central position in the Pacific, which provides continuous contact with world commerce and gives a cosmopolitan character to its economic and social life.

(2) Its natural limitations, which circumscribe the character of Hawaiian industry: The lack of minerals sharply restricting the development of manufacture, and the marked variations in altitude, rainfall, and soil restricting the basic agricultural industries to one-tenth of the total land area.

(3) The combination of a large supply of ground water and a remarkably equable climate, which makes possible a continuous and extremely intensive cultivation of agricultural products on the small areas that are arable.

(4) Its complex population of widely variant races, which provides the manpower on which its fundamental industries must rely.

The Territory of Hawaii has been termed "The Crossroads of the Pacific," and it owes much of its development to the fact that, to a greater extent than any other habitable Pacific area, it constitutes a

¹ During the past year the Bureau of Labor Statistics conducted a survey of economic conditions in Hawaii, with special reference to the position of labor. The results of the survey are embodied in a report, now in process of publication as a Congressional Document, entitled "Labor in the Territory of Hawaii." The present article is a brief summarization of parts of this report. A second article, dealing with wages, hours, and working conditions in Hawaii, with particular reference to the sugar and pineapple industries, will appear in a subsequent issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

focal point for trans-Pacific shipping. Its history covers only a century and a half. "Cook's Voyages" was published in 1784, discussing that writer's discoveries of 1778. Not until that time did the Islands even find a position on the charts of navigators. Hence they were among the last of the Pacific-island groups to be discovered, but their strategic position caused them to be more quickly settled and more highly industrialized than any other oceanic islands.

Resources.—The total area of the Territory is 6,435 square miles, or about one-third larger than the State of Connecticut. Since all of the islands are volcanic in origin, much of the soil is rocky or is covered with lava or ash. The central area of every island is mountainous. Hence only about 10 percent of the land is arable.

There are no ores or metals or mineral fuels of any sort; even building stones are limited in variety. These facts place very strict limits on industrial possibilities. Aside from the canneries and the sugar mills, there is little in the way of manufacture.

But, in spite of the small percentage of arable land, it has been possible for the Territory to develop a significant agricultural economy. Such lands as are available are farmed with extraordinary intensity. There is a large supply of ground water available for irrigation purposes, making possible scientific control of cultivation by irrigation systems, which not only provide water but distribute fertilizer.

An even greater boon to Hawaiian agriculture is the climate, which makes it possible to plant crops any day in the year. It is not uncommon for small truck gardeners to raise six to eight crops on the same land each year. Remarkable results can be achieved with a controlled water supply and a warm, even climate.

Population—The Racial Complexity of Hawaii

The population of Hawaii passed through three distinct periods: (1) 1778–1870, which was a period of sharp decline in the number of native Hawaiians; (2) 1870–1930, which witnessed a marked rise in population resulting from immigration; and (3) 1930 to the present, a period tending toward population stabilization.

(1) The sharp decline in the number of native Hawaiians during the first century after the discovery of the islands² was due in part to exploitation, but primarily because the lack of immunity to continental diseases caused the natives to die of such simple ailments as measles, or even common colds. A relatively small foreign population, largely American and British, settled in the islands during this period.

(2) From 1870 to 1930 there was a rapid increase in population, owing to a great influx of non-Hawaiian peoples (particularly orien-

² During that time the native population declined from an estimated 300,000 to less than 50,000.

tals), together with the gradually accelerating growth of mixed racial groups. This growth is indicated in table 1. It was occasioned primarily by the demands of the rapidly growing sugar industry and was directly fostered by an organization of the plantations for the purpose of bringing in cheap labor from other parts of the world. The earliest migrants were Chinese, who now constitute about 7 percent of the population and have achieved some of the economic and social advantages which accrue to the early settler.

TABLE 1.—*Population of Hawaii in Selected Years, 1832 to 1939*¹

Year	Total population	Change from preceding census	Year	Total population	Change from preceding census
1832.....	124,449		1890.....	89,990	+32,005
1836.....	107,954	-16,495	1900.....	154,001	+64,011
1850.....	84,165	-23,789	1910.....	191,909	+37,908
1860.....	69,800	-14,365	1920.....	255,912	+64,003
1872.....	56,897	-12,903	1930.....	368,336	+112,424
1878.....	57,958	+1,088	1939.....	414,988	+46,652

¹ Figures for 1832 to 1890, inclusive, are the estimates of the Territorial Planning Board; for 1900 to 1930, inclusive, those of the Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. The figure for 1939 is an estimate as of June 30, by the Hawaiian Board of Health, Bureau of Vital Statistics.

There was a fairly large importation of Portuguese between 1878 and 1900, and they now form over 7 percent of the population. About this same time Japanese were imported, and rapidly assumed a major position in the population of the Islands. For the past 35 years they have held a position of numerical superiority, and now constitute over 37 percent of the total population.

Japan as a labor market was largely cut off by the "Gentlemen's Agreement"³ of 1908, so the plantations turned to the Filipinos who were imported in slowly increasing numbers until 1920. Because of the strikes of Japanese plantation workers in 1920 and the Exclusion Act of 1924, which entirely prohibited the Japanese from entering the United States (including the Territory), the plantations imported Filipinos in much larger numbers during the twenties. But whereas the Japanese had brought "picture brides" in large numbers, the Filipinos came as single men. Many of them returned to the Philippines in the thirties, so that there has been a net decline in the number of Filipinos in recent years.

In 1935, when the Philippines became a commonwealth, immigration of Filipinos into Hawaii and the mainland was limited to 50 a year, and when the commonwealth becomes a free republic in 1946, the annual maximum will be 100.

Caucasians, who were among the earliest migrants, show a slow, continuous growth in numbers throughout the whole of the modern period, but they constitute only 26 percent of the total population.

³ By which the Japanese Government voluntarily agreed to restrict the migration of its citizens to the United States.

If the Portuguese, Puerto Ricans, and Spaniards (who are largely plantation or industrial workers) are not counted, the remaining Caucasians number only 16 percent of the total population. This latter group (primarily Americans from the mainland) holds the financial control and management of the greater part of the island industries.

(3) Since 1930 there has been a tendency toward population stabilization, accompanied by an effort toward economic stabilization. Today, because of immigration restriction, the American mainland constitutes the only significant source of migrants to the Territory.

TABLE 2.—Population of Hawaii, by Racial Origins, 1938¹

Race	Total population		Citizens		Aliens	
	Number	Percent of all races	Number	Percent of total population	Number	Percent of total population
All races.....	411,485	100.00	328,185	79.76	83,300	20.24
Japanese.....	153,539	37.31	116,584	75.93	36,955	24.07
Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian.....	62,135	15.10	62,135	100.00	—	—
Caucasian.....	106,999	26.00	103,988	97.17	3,011	2.83
Filipino.....	52,810	12.83	16,201	30.68	36,609	69.32
Chinese.....	28,380	6.90	24,097	84.91	4,283	15.09
Korean.....	6,707	1.63	4,355	64.93	2,352	35.07
All others.....	915	.22	825	90.16	90	9.84
Caucasian group						
Total.....	106,999	26.00	103,988	97.17	3,011	2.83
Spanish.....	1,248	.30	1,069	85.67	179	14.33
Portuguese.....	30,406	7.39	28,898	95.04	1,508	4.96
Puerto Rican.....	7,639	1.86	7,639	100.00	—	—
Other Caucasians ²	67,706	16.45	66,382	98.03	1,324	1.97
Hawaiian and Part-Hawaiian group						
Total.....	62,135	15.10	62,135	100.00	—	—
Hawaiian.....	21,268	5.17	21,268	100.00	—	—
Caucasian-Hawaiian.....	20,507	4.98	20,507	100.00	—	—
Asiatic-Hawaiian.....	20,360	4.95	20,360	100.00	—	—

¹ Territorial Board of Health, Bureau of Vital Statistics.

² Primarily Americans from the mainland.

With the exception of Caucasians from the American mainland and Filipinos, all of these racial groups are, for all practical purposes, confined to the Territory. Economic conditions in their countries of origin are so much poorer than those of Hawaii that there is little incentive to return. Indeed, in many cases, they are unwelcome in their former homelands, and are looked upon as immigrants causing undesirable competition in already highly competitive situations. On the other hand, in recent years at least, unemployment conditions have been such on the American mainland that it is extremely difficult for them to obtain a foothold here.

Thus, during the time that Hawaii was changing from a self-contained economic system to one geared to the markets of the American mainland, there was also a transition from a rapidly expanding labor market, dependent upon the importation of alien workers from many countries, to a stabilized, self-contained labor market, isolated by immigration restrictions.

The working population of Hawaii today is a heterogeneous racial mixture, largely isolated from the various countries of origin, and slowly becoming unified in respect to training, economic interests, and social and political ideals.

Sources of Income

The Territory of Hawaii is dependent upon four sources of income—sugar, pineapples,⁴ tourists, and Federal defense expenditures. The sugar industry is by far the most important. About one-fourth of the total population of the Territory lives on the sugar plantations, and a large proportion of those who work in Honolulu and other cities of the Islands are directly or indirectly dependent upon this basic industry. Next in importance is the pineapple industry. The export of canned pineapples and pineapple juice has, in recent years, almost equaled the export of sugar in value, but has been, on the whole, a less important and a far less dependable source of income for the Territory.

TOURIST TRADE

The tourist trade plays a larger part in the economy of Hawaii than in most of the areas of the mainland, and for that reason deserves special consideration. Tourists can be conveniently divided into two groups: (1) Those whose destination is Hawaii and who come there for a definite period of recreation, and (2) those who are en route to other ports. Their expenditures form the basic income for most of the hotels and restaurants, taxicab and car-rental enterprises, curio shops, and bathing and surfboard establishments. They also constitute a significant source of income for clothing establishments, theaters, the Inter-Island transportation companies, public clubs for golfing and dancing, and such picturesque occupations as the vending of "leis" (garlands of flowers). In 1939 there were 24,381 regular tourists and 41,156 transients who visited the Islands. The total, 65,537, was equal to more than a third of the population of the city of Honolulu, which handles over nine-tenths of the tourist trade. Of total tourist arrivals, 84.5 percent were from the American mainland (78 percent American and 6.5 percent Canadian).

It is commonly said in Honolulu that tourists represent an income of "a million a month." Actually, tourist expenditures are slightly less

⁴ A discussion of the sugar and pineapple industries will be included in a second article on Hawaii.

than a million dollars a month. They provide the equivalent of permanent employment for about 13,000 persons. In reality a considerably smaller number are fully employed in distinctly tourist enterprises, and a far larger number are partially employed by the demands of tourists in enterprises serving tourists and residents alike.

FEDERAL EXPENDITURES FOR DEFENSE

The fourth source of income for the Territory is received indirectly from the Federal Government, in expenditures for the maintenance of military and naval establishments. In 1939 the Army pay roll for enlisted men was \$8,608,117, and for officers was \$3,841,271. The Army also maintains a regular staff of civilian employees; these should be distinguished from those who are hired for new construction and who experience sharp fluctuations in employment.

In recent years the Navy has maintained a normal complement of 500-600 officers and over 5,000 enlisted men, in addition to approximately 2,000 civilian workers in the maintenance of various branches of the naval services. In the economy of Hawaii, in which the total number of gainfully employed amounts to only 160,000, a continuous flow of expenditures, by way of salaries to Army and Navy personnel, into the various enterprises of the Territory provides a substantial backlog in times of depression. With the recent rise of political difficulties in the Pacific, there has been a considerable increase in the number of men stationed in the Territory.

The Federal expenditures for construction in Hawaii are in a slightly different category, but also constitute a basic source of income for the Islands. In recent years new construction for defense purposes on the part of both the Army and the Navy, in addition to Federally aided highway construction and PWA and WPA projects, has represented more than half of the total construction. Thus, whereas private construction is typical on the mainland, public construction predominates in Hawaii. At the present time, as might be expected, there is a distinctly upward trend in the volume of Federal expenditures for defense purposes in Hawaii. The increase in the importance of Hawaii as an outpost of national defense results in an increasingly significant effect of Federal expenditures on the Hawaiian economy as a whole.

Thus the resources of Hawaii support three types of basic income-producing establishments which determine its place in world trade.⁵ Its soil and its unusually equable climate are well adapted to the production of sugar and pineapples. Its climate and scenery have made possible a large tourist trade. Its strategic position in the Pacific

⁵ Strictly speaking, tuna canning, a minor portion of the truck farming, and a small part of beach wear manufacture, should be included among the export industries which contribute to the income of the Territory from outside areas. The great bulk of nonplantation and other enterprises, however, is purely ancillary.

has made it a key point in the defense system of the United States. On the basis of these activities trade with the mainland is maintained.

As already noted, there are no mineral or fuel resources on the basis of which the Territory might develop an export trade of manufactured articles. Some areas in a similar position employ workers in the processing of goods imported in a semifinished form and reexported as finished articles. However, such an economy for Hawaii could be maintained, in the face of the high cost of transportation to and from the mainland, only at the expense of labor income. At the present time, with the exception of a small trade in beach wear, there is no business of this sort. It might develop if the basic sugar and pineapple industries collapsed. Such a catastrophe would leave the Island population only three possibilities: (1) Competition with the more favored areas of the American mainland through pressure on the wage structure of the Islands; (2) a large-scale emigration of Island laborers; or (3) the development of a local subsistence economy at poverty levels.

Although the poverty of the Islands in respect to mineral and fuel resources has prevented the development of self-sufficiency in manufactured goods, the relative profitableness of sugar and pineapples has lifted the standards of living. This has been accomplished, however, at the expense of an extreme dependence on the outside world, not only for manufactured goods, but even for a large portion of the food supply.

ANCILLARY INDUSTRIES

The basic sources of income for the Territory (plantation agriculture, the tourist trade, and national defense) have required the development of an elaborate group of ancillary industries. Public utilities are needed to maintain the population, and, in the aggregate, are third in importance following sugar and pineapples. Truck gardening and cattle raising have developed in response to the needs of the local population for food, though a significant portion of the food requirements of the Territory must still be imported from the American mainland.⁶ Shipping and longshore work are necessary corollaries of the heavy dependence on import-export trade. There

⁶ Although Hawaii is agricultural, it produces only about one-third of its own food requirements. Some 95 crops are raised on small farms which are for the most part on marginal land. There are some 5,589 acres in truck crops, 2,040 acres in corn, 1,952 acres in avocados and bananas, 1,276 acres in rice, and 1,340 acres in nuts, papaya, and fruits.

Most of the crops are produced on small, one-family farms (largely Japanese). Hence no records regarding either hours or wages are available. Earnings on such farms are quite variable due to variations in rainfall and market conditions. On the average, truck farmers represent one of the lowest income groups in the Territory. Many of these farmers are hopelessly in debt to local stores.

The truck-farming situation in Hawaii is an example of the principle of comparative advantage in inter-regional trade. The trend toward sugar and pineapple production, now occupying 95 percent of all the arable land, is due to the economic fact that they provide a greater income than can be obtained from other crops. A marked decline in the price or the market for sugar or pineapples over a long period would lead to an increase in the quantity of truck-farm products. Under present conditions, some increase in local production to meet local needs may be expected, but the popular demand for a general broad development of diversified agriculture on plantation land has no economic basis.

has also been some development of manufacturing to meet local consumer and tourist needs and to service the canneries and the sugar mills. Printing and publishing, can manufacture for the pineapple industry, garment shops, and local iron foundries form the principal manufactures. The greatest part of the manufactured goods, however, must be imported from the mainland. There is a rapidly expanding tuna-canning industry which appears to have possibilities. There are numerous trade and service industries, such as mercantile establishments, hotels, restaurants, laundries, tailoring and garment shops, garages, service stations, and the like.

Generalizations Regarding Wage Structure

A statistical analysis of the wages and working conditions in the various industries in Hawaii indicates that there are wide variations not only as between industries but also as between various firms within a given industry. This is not surprising in view of the extremely complex racial make-up of the Territory, which includes peoples of widely variant economic backgrounds and standards of living. The marked wage differences may also be accounted for in part by the fact that wages have been rising rapidly in the basic industries, whereas the wages in some other industries have not risen proportionately. The situation is further complicated by the remarkable change from first- to second- and third-generation workers on plantations and in other industries; that is, from illiterate laborers with low standards of living to citizen laborers with an American schooling and higher standards of living.

But in spite of the complexities of the wage standards and the working conditions of the Hawaiian economy, it is possible to make a few broad generalizations. It is quite clear, for example, that the wage structure of the island of Oahu is distinctly above that of the other islands in practically every field. In the case of sugar, pineapples, public utilities, construction, printing and publishing, stevedoring, hotels and restaurants, this difference is particularly marked. In fact the regulations governing minimum wages in the construction industry frankly recognize this situation by providing a lower minimum for the Islands other than Oahu. There is also a slight differentiation between the wage levels of the other islands, Maui having somewhat higher wages than Kauai or Hawaii. These differentials, however, were much greater in the past than they are today. With the rapid development of transport facilities and the growing strength of labor organization, it appears probable that such differentials will continue to decline.

ECONOMIC STRATIFICATION BY RACE

Also to be noted is the tendency toward economic stratification by race. There is a well-known comment on wages in Hawaii that "There are three levels of wages in the Territory: (1) What the 'haole' [Caucasian] pays the 'haole', (2) what the 'haole' pays the oriental, and (3) what the oriental pays the oriental."⁷ Studies of the wage structures of various Hawaiian industries indicate that there are a number of large industries in which this statement does not apply. In such firms, variations in earnings by race are so slight as to be of no significance. In many, given rates are paid for specific types of work regardless of race. In the public utilities, for example, it was shown that the average annual earnings of Chinese workers were somewhat above those of the Caucasians, although the public utilities are under Caucasian management.

Nevertheless, there is some justification for the commonly accepted belief quoted above. In the printing and publishing industry, for example, variations in earnings by race are very marked. Japanese employed in this industry received half as much in hourly earnings as Caucasians. In the construction industry, conditions are such that practically all of the private construction is in the hands of Japanese contractors, who employ Japanese workers. Fifty-two percent of the workers in private construction received less than 45 cents per hour, whereas all workers in public construction received over 45 cents per hour. Among the unskilled laborers in this field, the highest paid workers in private construction received less than the lowest paid workers in public construction.

Relative position of racial groups.—The Caucasians who migrated to Hawaii from the American mainland hold the dominant economic position in terms of both wealth and management. Broadly speaking, Hawaiians and Portuguese are next. The economic strength of the Hawaiians grows out of their historic position in the Islands, which has in some cases made possible the retention of large blocks of land. The rapid diminution in the number of Hawaiians⁸ meant that, insofar as their wealth was passed on by inheritance, it accumulated in the hands of fewer and fewer persons, hence contributing to the maintenance of a stronger individual economic position than would otherwise have been the case.

Again, because of historic relationships, the Territory tends to favor the employment of Hawaiians in government positions.

⁷ The term "haole" means a person with white skin, hence a foreigner, and is commonly used to designate Caucasians of better-than-average social and economic position.

⁸ It should be noted, however, that the downward trend in the number of native Hawaiians was checked about the beginning of the century. Both Hawaiians and part-Hawaiians are now on the increase.

The economic position of the Portuguese in this second group is much less clear, and subject to exceptions.

Because the Chinese arrived earlier than the great majority of oriental migrants, they had the advantage of having established themselves in strategic positions early in the period of economic expansion. The Japanese, on the other hand, have the advantages of large numbers and great racial solidarity. Thus, although the economic position of the Japanese is, on the average, somewhat lower than that of the Chinese, they have established themselves very securely in the Hawaiian economy.

The Filipinos, of all the large racial groups, occupy the least advantageous economic position and have a distinctly uncertain future in Hawaii. They are subject to all of the disadvantages of a late migrant to an already industrially developed community. Thus, in proportion to their numbers, they occupy far fewer salaried and executive positions than do members of other races. In addition to having a lower average wage level, they are faced with the social instability which grows out of the great preponderance of Filipino men. For other racial groups, normal social organization along family lines is typical, whereas for Filipinos, single men (the overwhelming majority of them living in groups in plantation houses) are typical. Their social conditions are thus distinctly unsatisfactory from a long-run point of view. In recent years, far more Filipinos have returned to Manila than have migrated to the Territory.

Wages as related to racial origin of owners and managers.—Another generalization closely related to racial differences in wages is that the wage structures of individual concerns, broadly speaking, tend to stratify in accordance with the racial origins of the owners and managers of such concerns. For example, the differences in wages paid by companies in the printing and publishing industry are even greater than the differences in the average earnings of employees classified by race. Although there are significant exceptions, it is true that in the oriental companies average earnings are lower, average hours are longer, and working conditions are generally poorer than in establishments under Caucasian management. This tendency appears to be one of the reasons why fields of work dominated by oriental firms—such as private construction, the small retail shops, barber shops, and dressmaking—tend toward distinctly lower labor standards than other fields.

WAGE TRENDS DURING THE PAST DECADE

As a final generalization, it may be said that the fundamental wage trend in the Territory, paralleling that of the mainland, has been upward. But in the case of Hawaii, it started (at the time of annexation in 1898) from a distinctly lower level than in other parts of the

United States. The gains in all industries have been intermittent, with occasional set-backs. Some industries have raised their labor standards rapidly, whereas others have been distinctly backward.

Hawaii, along with the rest of the country, suffered from the depression conditions of the early thirties, but in Hawaii the effects of depression on wages appeared about a year and a half later than on the mainland, and were less severe. What is more significant is the fact that the recovery from depression wage levels was more rapid in Hawaii. During the first half of the decade of the thirties Hawaiian wages fell less markedly, and during the latter half of the decade gained more rapidly than did the general agricultural wage level for the United States as a whole.

This is not to say that the earnings of Hawaiian laborers are high. It must be remembered that the overwhelming majority of Hawaiian workers are agricultural, whereas on the mainland the great majority are industrial. It is notably true that, for the country as a whole, including Hawaii, agricultural labor receives the lowest wages of any large occupational group. But it is also true that the average monthly earnings of Hawaiian agricultural labor (with the exception of earnings on the small oriental family farms) exceed those of hired agricultural laborers of the American mainland. Because the equable climate largely eliminates seasonality (particularly in the sugar industry), the annual earnings of plantation labor in the Territory are distinctly above the annual earnings of farm workers elsewhere in the United States.

PERQUISITES

The tradition of providing living quarters as perquisites, which was established in the early days of imported plantation labor, has carried over to some degree into other than plantation industries. For example, living quarters are very commonly provided for workers on ranches, dairy farms, and even small farms employing one or two hired laborers. Some of the workers in a few of the public utilities receive such perquisites; and even employees in many of the small retail shops, barber shops, hotels, and restaurants, receive food or living accommodations, or both.

Conditions of work in Hawaii reflect the complex racial mixtures involved in the industrial structure of the Territory, ranging all the way from high standards in the offices of the large sugar agencies in Honolulu and in the best of the public utilities (which would compare favorably with mainland practice), to conditions of work comparable to the sweatshops in the poorest sections of the largest mainland cities. The accommodations for workers in respect to equipment, lighting, ventilation, and rest rooms are distinctly American in character for the better firms. But as one observes the range from these levels

on downward, one finds an increasing trend toward oriental standards⁹ in respect to working conditions. A similar generalization can be made in respect to provisions for sick leave, vacations with pay, hospitalization, group insurance, and pensions.

Labor-Management Relations

The position of labor relative to the economy of Hawaii as a whole is best expressed in terms of a comparison between the organization of the management of industry on the one hand and the organization of labor on the other.

INTEGRATION OF MANAGEMENT AND CONTROL

Throughout the Territory, there is a general belief that the whole industrial structure of the Islands is subject to the ownership of a small group. Because many of the aspects of control, though clearly present, are not at all clear in respect to degree or detail, there is an inclination to exaggerate the extent of the concentration of ownership.

There are between 15,000 and 16,000 individual stockholders in the sugar industry alone (about two-thirds of whom are residents of the Territory). Of the lands producing sugar, less than half are directly owned by the plantations, the remainder being leased from individual estates (many of them owned by native Hawaiians) and from the government of the Territory. Moreover, the infiltration of mainland concerns, such as the large pineapple companies, the low-price retail chain stores now established on the four leading islands, and the recent development of Honolulu branch offices for the conduct of a mail-order business on a large scale (all controlled from the central offices of large mainland corporations) tend to encroach upon the long-established position of the Island enterprises.

In spite of these facts there remain many evidences of a high degree of integration in management and control. This applies not only to specific industries, such as the sugar industry, but also to the general financial and industrial structure of the Territory as a whole.

This structural integration is not entirely a matter of the concentration of legal ownership. Many of its phases are inherent in the isolated character of the Hawaiian economy and in the social and

⁹ Any attempt to evaluate standards of living in Hawaii is greatly hampered by the fact that no comprehensive study of costs of living has ever been made in the Territory.

The complex racial composition of the Islands has resulted in an equally complex mixture of standards of living, which are not strictly comparable because they are the outgrowths of such widely differing racial cultures. Moreover, the rapid shift in the educational and cultural background from generation to generation has led to an equally rapid change in the way of living of the children and grandchildren of the imported oriental workers. The difficulty is considerably increased when oriental and occidental ways of living become intermixed, a condition which is typical of large sections of the Hawaiian population. Hence, any generalizations with respect to standards of living in Hawaii must be considered broad approximations rather than exact statements.

family relationships that have developed over time. That is, part of the unification of control is to be found in relationships which are not embodied in formal contracts or even in formal organizations.

At the outset it should be noted that the wealth of the Islands is largely in the hands of Caucasians, or, to be more specific, Anglo-Saxons. The figures for Territorial taxes and assessed values by race indicate that Hawaiians, Part-Hawaiians, Portuguese, Spaniards, Chinese, Japanese, and Filipinos combined own only one-fifth of the total assessed values of taxable real and personal property, although they represent four-fifths of the population. Anglo-Saxons, as individuals, own only slightly over 15 percent of assessed property, and constitute about the same percentage (16.4) of the total population. But "corporations and firms" control two-thirds of all assessed property value. Some of this consists of large estates in part under Hawaiian control, but the greater part of it is under Anglo-Saxon ownership.

Even that land which is Hawaiian-owned is largely under Anglo-Saxon management by virtue of long-term leases between the plantations and the Hawaiian estates. Thus it is clear that the dominant position in the industrial life of the Territory lies within the Anglo-Saxon group, representing one-sixth of the population. Within the Anglo-Saxon group itself there is a high degree of concentration of control.

One aspect of this integration lies in the character of the corporate and intercorporate relationships between Island enterprises. Five large agencies control the sugar industry. These agencies do not confine their activities to sugar alone, but have investments and contractual relationships with many other Island enterprises. In addition, they own many subsidiary companies.

Another important aspect of the integration of management lies in the interlocking directorates to be found in the territorial corporations.

Still another is to be found in the system of land ownership. Within the lifetime of people still living in the Territory, Hawaii was under a distinctly feudal system. The transfer of a system of land tenure under a feudal king to the present system of land tenure was an exceedingly complicated one. Many of the present land holdings date back to this prior period. The historic development of land holdings and the present intricate system of land tenure and leases contribute to the unification of power in the Territory.

There has been a considerable degree of intermarriage among the more influential of the families of the Territory, possibly because of the relative isolation of Hawaii. Interfamily relationships, as well as intrafamily holdings, are thus an additional significant feature in the integration of industry.

Because the sugar industry is the oldest, most powerful, and most highly unified in the Hawaiian economy, many persons are inclined to think of the economic integration of the Territory exclusively in terms of this industry. But it should be noted that, because of the intercorporate relations mentioned above, the centralization of control is not confined to the sugar industry alone, but extends into practically every aspect of the economic life of Hawaii. Over half of the pineapple industry is island-owned, and it is closely connected, through interlocking directors and intrafamily holdings, with the sugar industry. The same may be said of most of the public utilities, the Matson and Inter-Island steamship companies, the large hotels, and a great variety of minor corporate enterprises.

Thus, the Territory of Hawaii possesses a strongly centralized industrial structure, highly integrated in its broader aspects as well as its minor details, not only in the economic but even in the social and political aspects of Island life.

Although many of the large enterprises maintain effective employee-welfare policies, their attitude may best be described as benevolently paternalistic rather than liberal. The history of management in Hawaii is one of antagonism to labor organization.

LACK OF LABOR ORGANIZATION

The high degree of intercorporate control makes it possible to mobilize the resources of all large enterprises to restrict the growth of labor unions and to combat strikes in whatever fields of industry they may occur. Although management has done much to improve working conditions in Hawaii, it has also used every influence at its command to restrict labor organization, particularly in the sugar and pineapple industries.

The workers of Hawaii are economically isolated. They find it equally difficult to return to the countries of their origin or to migrate to the American mainland, and are thus completely dependent upon a relatively restricted group of local Island enterprises throughout the whole of their lives. In this respect they are in a very different position from that of the typical mainland wage earner. There is, therefore, a very strong incentive not to do anything which would jeopardize their future employment possibilities.

The position of the individual plantation worker is especially vulnerable. The house in which he lives, the store from which he buys, the places in which he finds his recreation, and the hospital in which he is treated, are all owned by plantation management. The policies of plantation managers are controlled by the sugar agencies in Honolulu, and they, in turn, control the greater part of the other Hawaiian enterprises.

Whether it is justified or not, there is a prevalent feeling among the majority of Hawaiian workers that a bad record with any important

concern in the Territory makes it difficult to obtain employment in any other concern, and that to be associated with labor-union activities is certain to weaken their employment opportunities, if not destroy their economic future.

In comparison with the highly integrated character of industrial management, the organization of labor in the Territory is meager.

EFFORTS TO ORGANIZE PLANTATION LABOR

To understand the development of labor organization in Hawaii, it is necessary to remember that in less than 70 years the population has increased from 56,000 (in 1872) to well over 400,000. Practically all of this increase is non-Hawaiian and represents the organized importation of labor for plantation purposes.

The original idea of plantation management was to bring out workers under contract and ship them back after the contract was finished. That is, they were interested in obtaining young, unmarried males at the best of their productive period and in avoiding the problem of maintenance of families or of pensions for superannuated workers. At first this system was successful. Imported Chinese laborers used Hawaii as a stepping stone to the American mainland. The ever-present problem in this circulating supply of labor was to maintain a large enough importation to offset not only the emigration of workers whose contracts had expired, but also the constantly increasing demands of the expanding plantation system.

The ratio of immigration and emigration to population reached its peak in 1889, when it amounted to 24.1 percent. Thereafter, large numbers (particularly of the Japanese) began to settle permanently and to establish homes.

Under these conditions, it is not surprising that the organization of labor on the plantations is a recent development. The early laborers brought into the Islands were, for the most part, docile and ignorant. They had come from countries in which conditions of labor were extremely harsh, hours were long, and pay was low. They were thrown into strange surroundings far distant from their accustomed homes. Moreover, they found themselves in immediate competition with other races with which they had previously had no contact. Thus they were easily exploited. The record of the early days of plantation life under the contract system is a severe indictment of the methods and attitudes of plantation owners of those days. This system was not abolished until annexation in 1898. Partly by virtue of a gradually growing sympathy and unity on the part of the various elements among the plantation laborers, partly because of the gradual increase in the number of second- and third-generation citizen laborers on the plantations, and partly because of a marked change toward a social-

mind attitude on the part of plantation management, conditions have greatly improved since those early days, in respect to wages, hours, working conditions, and the whole of the life of plantation communities.

Nevertheless, the plantation system continues to be paternalistic. Employee organizations do exist on the plantation, but they take the form of recreational and social clubs or of religious groups, usually along racial lines. Labor organizations, as such, have gained little footing. Since all of the property, the land, the housing, the community center itself, even many of the governmental functions of the plantation towns, are controlled by plantation management, anyone in the plantation community who is disapproved by management is legally a trespasser and, as such, can be put off the plantation.

In spite of these conditions, plantation workers were beginning to become organization-minded by the end of the World War. The rapid rise in prices occasioned by the war led to a wave of strikes, in 1919 and 1920, which represented an effort to adjust the wage scale to the rising cost of living. They were also due to an increasing solidarity among plantation laborers, many of whom had, by this time, established permanent homes in the Territory. In 1919 a federation of Japanese labor in Hawaii was formed. Demands were submitted to the Hawaiian sugar plantations. At the same time, a newly organized Filipino labor association presented similar demands. These were rejected, and in December both organizations went on strike on six Oahu plantations.

Although other strikes had occurred as early as the eighties and nineties, they were spontaneous, brief (2 or 3 days), and generally racial in character. They were usually occasioned by some disturbing incident which brought labor and management into conflict, such as an unannounced change in piece rates, or trouble between a "luna" (strawboss) and the field workers under him, rather than by any consistent effort on the part of labor for better conditions. A strike in 1909, though somewhat broader in scope, was also of this character. The strike of 1919-20 thus represented the first consistently organized effort to enforce wage and other demands. It involved destructive activity, including the burning of cane, in addition to large losses caused by the interruption of harvesting and planting schedules, and was estimated to have cost the plantations \$12,000,000.

The workers struck at the most strategic island, Oahu, and refrained from striking on the other islands, in order to make it possible for the Oahu strikers (particularly the Japanese) to obtain aid from those at work on other islands. The strike lasted approximately 7 months. The Filipinos returned to work on February 10 and the Japanese at the end of July. As a result of the strike, they obtained a new wage and bonus schedule, increasing the minimum rate and abolishing race

differentials. Plantation-labor organization, however, disintegrated immediately after the strike.

The next important plantation strike occurred on April 1, 1924; the Filipinos struck for \$2 a day, an 8-hour day, and no bonus; and were led by a Filipino organizer named Pablo Manlapit. The strikes involved a number of islands, Oahu and Hawaii in particular.

On September 9 strikers at Hanapepe, Kauai, held two Filipino strikebreakers prisoners in their camp. The prisoners were later returned to the police, but while they were being escorted away, a dispute arose which resulted in the killing of 4 policemen and 16 strikers, and the wounding of many more. Seventy-six participants were arrested and 60 were given 4-year prison terms.

During the following 13 years there were few labor disturbances on the plantations and no effective efforts toward organization.

Filipino laborers again struck between April 20 and June 21, 1937, this time on the island of Maui, partly with the aid of C. I. O. organizers. At its peak, the strike involved some 3,500 Filipinos on 3 plantations. It was a distinctly Filipino strike, although Japanese workers provided some financial support, as did also the National Maritime Union. Slight wage concessions were obtained.

That same year, in June and August, there were strikes on the pineapple plantations involving altogether about 1,800 men. Additional plantation strikes occurred from time to time throughout the period 1937-39, though they received little publicity and ended quickly. Up to this time all plantations, whether sugar or pineapple, had maintained a strongly antiunion stand.

The first vote to be taken by an Island plantation organization occurred at Kakaheo, Kauai, under an agreement signed May 20, 1939, by the manager of the company and the officers of the unions. The United Cannery, Agricultural, Packing, and Allied Workers of America, Local 76, C. I. O., was voted as exclusive representative for collective bargaining. Both men and women were excused from their jobs by the management to permit them to vote. Since the election was held pursuant to the National Labor Relations Act, only nonagricultural workers were eligible to vote, and some confusion arose in respect to who were agricultural and who were nonagricultural employees. Nevertheless this agreement was looked upon by both plantation and cannery labor as an important precedent in the future development of plantation labor organizations.

NONPLANTATION UNIONS

The workers who live outside of the plantations are in a somewhat different position. They represent over half of the total number gainfully employed. They live in Honolulu and a few small urban centers. This group includes a much larger percentage of Caucasian workers and skilled trades than does the group on the plantations.

Unionism in Honolulu is older than the Territory. But such small organizations as did exist in the early days were largely made up of Caucasian workers who came from the American mainland and brought their labor unions with them. It is recorded that a charter was issued to Typographical Union No. 37 of Honolulu on August 9, 1884. It was not until 1910, however, that there were enough unions to form a central labor council. This functioned only about 5 years. During the World War there seems to have been little activity.

The large plantation strike of 1919-20 was accompanied by a wave of smaller strikes in such enterprises as the Oahu Railway, the Mutual Telephone Co., Honolulu Construction & Draying Co., Inter-Island Steamship Co., and others.

In August 1935, three maritime unions—the Sailors' Union of the Pacific, the Marine Cooks and Stewards, and the Marine Firemen and Watertenders—sent agents to Honolulu to open "hiring halls." These unions were working under contracts with the shipowners for the first time in the history of Honolulu. Since that time, the maritime unions have constituted the focal point of labor organization and activity in the Territory. As a result of a maritime strike which began in October 1936, attempts were made to organize longshoremen of Honolulu. An effort to obtain an A. F. of L. charter for the organization failed, and a C. I. O. charter was applied for and received.

Soon after this, some of the union longshoremen were discharged. A complaint was filed with the National Labor Relations Board charging the Matson Co. with discrimination against the union. As a result of the Board's investigation, formal hearings were ordered. The examiner's decision indicated that labor had been coerced and intimidated, and ordered compensation in the amount of \$6,000.

On May 26, 1938, a number of maritime unions centering in Hilo, including longshoremen, warehousemen, clerks, and transport workers, presented demands to the Inter-Island Steamship Co., resulting in a strike which lasted until August 15, 1938. The strike gradually grew in intensity, and the attempt to unload a steamship in Hilo, on August 1, was occasion for a mass demonstration by the strikers, resulting in the wounding of 50 persons, 25 of whom had to be hospitalized.

Hawaiian unionism tends to center in functional groups, such as the Maritime Trades Council which includes machinists, carpenters, boilermakers, molders, and plumbers; the Allied Printing Trades Council, which includes the typographical union, the pressmen, the engravers, and the Newspaper Guild; and the maritime unions, which are divided into (1) the cooks and stewards, and the firemen, who are members of West Coast unions without local charters, and (2) other waterfront unions, Inter-Island Boatmen's Union, the longshoremen, and the Honolulu Waterfront Workers' Association, each of which has a local charter. Besides this, there are a number of special unions for

musicians; hotel, restaurant, and bar caterers; barbers; transportation workers; motion-picture operators; brewery workers; plasterers; butchers; and the telegraphers and radio-station personnel.

C. I. O. and A. F. of L. unions are about equally represented. Both groups have endeavored to avoid the extreme antagonisms which have characterized their relations elsewhere. In this respect labor has cooperated more effectively in Hawaii than in most places on the mainland.

The total membership of all unions in the Territory has been increasing. Accurate figures are not available. Estimates of total membership by union officials range from 3,500 to 6,000. Even if the larger figure is accepted as accurate, it would indicate that less than one twenty-fifth of the gainfully employed are unionized.

This relative weakness of Hawaiian labor organization is due to the following factors:

(1) The rapid improvement in wages, hours, and working conditions in recent years, combined with well-organized opposition to unionism on the part of management in every aspect of the economic and political life of the Territory.

(2) Lack of experience on the part of the greater part of the Island labor (both alien and Hawaiian-born laborers come from a background in which labor unions are little known).

(3) Marked racial differences among plantation laborers, which create barriers of language and culture and result in distrust and even antagonism between racial groups. This is, however, a decreasing influence.

(4) The character of union leadership, which has often been inexperienced, overanxious to obtain quick results, and hence inclined to invoke drastic policies.

(5) Relatively little support accorded to Island organizations on the part of parent unions on the mainland.

(6) A tradition of employer-employee relationships along racial lines, particularly among workers of oriental origin, which cuts directly across the lines of union organization.

(7) Discrimination within some of the unions (particularly those brought to Honolulu from the mainland) against workers of oriental extraction, which has tended toward economic stratification along racial lines and which also cuts across the lines of normal Hawaiian labor organization.

Unemployment

The general problem of unemployment in Hawaii has been less serious than in continental United States. The depression which began in 1929 did not make itself seriously felt in terms of unemployment in Hawaii until 1931. This led to the establishment of an un-

employment-relief bureau to register unemployed and to provide relief measures in 1932. A Territorial committee cooperated in the emergency measures adopted at that time. The Reconstruction Finance Corporation provided \$307,435 in addition to the \$100,000 provided by the Territorial legislature.

In 1933 the Territorial Unemployment Work Relief Commission was created. The resources for its work were provided from a special tax of one-half of 1 percent on compensation and dividends. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration and the Civil Works Administration also took an active part. These relief agencies continued throughout 1934. During that year the Hawaiian Rural Rehabilitation Corporation, Ltd., was also organized to implement the rural-rehabilitation program.

It is estimated that persons on relief in the Territory as a whole averaged 4,718 in 1934, representing an average weekly pay roll of \$46,279. On January 14 of that year there were 3,780 workers on Public Works Administration rolls in Oahu, 1,453 in Hawaii, 972 in Maui, and 272 in Kauai. Between May 1932 and November 1934, Federal Emergency Relief Administration and Public Works Administration expenditures totaled \$4,069,635.36.

The total number of persons employed on Federally aided projects was slightly less than 5,000 on January 1, 1934. Between 1934 and 1937 there were sharp fluctuations ranging between 5,000 and an all-time high of 8,800 in May 1936. There was a marked decline in Federally aided employment during the first half of 1937, to 4,100 in July of that year. Since July 1937, there have been some increases with irregular variations, the average number of persons employed on Federally aided projects being approximately 5,000.

CHANGING VIEWPOINTS AND ECONOMIC STABILITY

One of the most significant factors affecting stability of employment is the present rapid shift in the character of the total labor supply in the Islands, arising from the fact that the children and grandchildren of imported laborers (primarily oriental) have grown up in an entirely different cultural environment from that of their parents.¹⁰ They have studied and played together in the same schools, schools which provide a decidedly democratic atmosphere; they have adopted distinctly American points of view, and have come to understand and desire American standards of living. There is a marked tendency on the part of native-born citizens of the second and third generation to break away from the traditions, manners, language, and standards of their parents. Yet, to the overwhelming majority, the single great

¹⁰ Citizen labor on the sugar plantations constituted only 12 percent of the total population in 1930, whereas by July 1939, 45 percent of such laborers were citizens. At present four-fifths of all the inhabitants of the Territory are citizens.

occupational opportunity is that of field laborer on a plantation, an occupation which from their point of view is not satisfactory. There is thus a tendency for such young people to remain in Honolulu and seek employment there, rather than to enter into plantation life. In the survey of December 1939 ¹¹ it was estimated that 92 percent of all unemployed workers on the island of Oahu were in Honolulu.

Of the unemployed men in this survey, 41.48 percent were between 15 and 24 years of age and an additional 25.56 percent between 25 and 34 years of age. Of the women, 46.92 percent were between 15 and 24 years of age and 24.79 percent between 25 and 34 years of age. Thus, well over two-thirds of all unemployed men and women were less than 34 years of age. It is also significant that 55.5 percent of the men and 45.3 percent of the women in this unemployed group were single, and practically all of them had no dependents.

VIEWPOINTS OF HAWAIIAN-BORN WORKERS

Conferences with Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino young people's organizations in the Territory led to the conclusion that, whether justified or not, these young people held certain definite impressions in respect to their own future prospects, as follows:

(a) For the overwhelming majority of them Hawaii offers the only possible economic future. American-born Japanese are not welcomed in Japan, but are rather looked upon with suspicion and as undesirable competitors. Indeed, it is not at all uncommon to encounter Japanese who can speak only English and who consider themselves distinctly American, with no ties whatsoever with the country of their origin.

Chinese young people do not arouse such a hostile attitude in their home country as do the Japanese, but the wages and working conditions of China are on such a distinctly lower plane than those of Hawaii that they do not think of their homeland as an alternative. The destructiveness of the war in China since July 7, 1937, has been such that anything like normal economic conditions do not appear likely there for at least a generation.

Filipino young people are in a somewhat different position since, as latecomers, they occupy the lowest position economically in Hawaii. Since the great majority of them are migrants from the Philippines, rather than Hawaiian-born, many of them still retain contacts in the Philippines and large numbers have returned during the past decade. Reports indicate that wages and working conditions in the Philippines are on a distinctly lower level than those of Hawaii, and this is acting as a deterrent to those who contemplate a return.

¹¹ Territory of Hawaii. Territorial Planning Board and Human Resources Committee (in collaboration with the Education Committee of the Honolulu Chamber of Commerce.) Unemployment Survey, Honolulu and Rural Oahu. Honolulu, 1939.

On the other hand, for all three groups, migration to the American mainland is equally difficult because of the rather hostile attitude toward orientals as competitors in a situation in which unemployment is already proportionately greater than it is in Hawaii. Moreover, the amount of money necessary for transportation and living expenses while they are becoming established on the mainland is usually more than they find it possible to obtain. For these reasons, their outlook is confined to the Island economy.

(b) A second opinion generally held by young orientals is that occupational opportunity is more narrowly restricted for them than for Caucasians, because the greatest part of the wealth of the Islands is in the hands of Caucasians, and because, as they put it, "there is a 'ceiling' above which oriental employees cannot rise in respect to positions of executive power."

(c) The more aggressive and educated of this group further feel that the most desirable jobs that have been within their reach (white-collar jobs in Honolulu firms) are now rapidly being absorbed by young Caucasians from the American mainland. From their point of view this tends to stop the upward movement, by promotion, of those of their own races. This movement of white-collar workers from the American mainland to Hawaii has not as yet reached large proportions, but it is growing.

(d) It is still true that the majority of these young people look upon the acceptance of field work on the plantations as the defeat of their ambitions and a serious "loss of face" among their fellows. Hence, the tendency to remain in Honolulu, often as dependents on their parents, and the continued search for some niche in which they can find their place, even (if necessary) at an economic sacrifice as compared with the amount they could earn on a plantation.

(e) Although there remains a very large measure of sharp competition along racial lines, there appears to be a gradually growing conviction in this group that only by united, organized effort can they better their economic outlook.

It is obvious that the problems which these viewpoints pose will continue to grow rapidly. The tendency toward labor organization in many fields during the past 5 years, in order to give unified support to the interests of this group, has already been described. For young workers still partially dependent on their families, the problem is less serious than for those who have had to go on into their thirties with this problem unsolved. Those who fail to obtain employment for so long a period gradually come to accept a hopeless, defeatist attitude and become fertile ground for radical propaganda. This group, now relatively small, appears likely to be augmented in time by others in a similar position.

It does not seem probable that this problem can be solved in terms of the expansion of occupational opportunities in white-collar jobs in Honolulu. If any solution is possible, it lies in the plantation industries where the largest occupational opportunities are to be found. Fortunately, these facts are recognized in Hawaii, and efforts are being made (1) by mechanization to create types of work (requiring less back-breaking toil and more specialized training) which will be more acceptable to citizen workers, and (2) gradually to reorganize the whole of plantation community life so as to provide conditions which will be acceptable to Hawaiian-born workers with an American background.

The future political and economic stability of the Territory depends in no small degree on these considerations. The question Hawaii is facing today is whether the highly integrated structural organization of the economic life of the Islands is flexible enough to adapt itself with sufficient rapidity to the sharp transition now occurring in the nature and outlook of Hawaiian labor.

CONDITIONS IN THE PUERTO RICAN NEEDLEWORK INDUSTRY

THE needlework industry in Puerto Rico is of very considerable commercial importance to the Island, the value of shipments to the mainland having increased from a little more than \$2,300,000 in the fiscal year 1921 to approximately \$21,000,000 in 1937. A study of the industry recently made by the Wage and Hour Division covers the economic condition of the industry, working and living conditions of home workers, wages, and employment, as well as statistics of prices, production, and costs.¹

The survey revealed that there were approximately 5,300 factory workers and 39,000 home workers employed in the industry. Health conditions were found to be generally unfavorable as a result of low incomes, inadequate diet, and poor living conditions generally, the rates for tuberculosis and hookworm infestation being particularly high. Wages of factory workers ranged from less than 5 cents to 50 cents and over per hour, with the principal concentrations in the groups receiving 12 but less than 13 cents per hour and 25 but less than 26 cents per hour. Wages of home workers who form the great majority of workers in the industry ranged, according to an earlier study, from less than 1 cent to 7 but less than 8 cents per hour.

Findings of the Survey

The needlework industry may be regarded as a branch of the industry in the States, as it is mainly carried on by contractors who process materials sent by firms from the mainland. However, there are a few mainland firms which own and operate their own establishments in Puerto Rico. Hand work predominates, although a certain amount of machine work is also done. The greatest part of the work is done by home workers, many articles being made in factories and sent through agents to home workers for hand embellishment, while others are made completely in the home by hand or machine. The system by which the work goes through the hands of contractors, agents, subagents, and home workers creates many difficulties, such as delay in return of goods and the possibility of loss or spoilage. It has also been charged that the home worker frequently does not receive the amount of pay which he should get under the agreement of the mainland manufacturer and the Island contractor. To control and correct this situation the industrial home-work law was passed by the Insular legislature in 1939. Factory workers and "inside workers"

¹ U. S. Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Report on Puerto Rico—The Needlework Industry. Prepared by Research and Statistics Branch for the Special Industry Committee for Puerto Rico. Washington, 1940.

are paid on a piece-rate basis or by the week, and home workers engaged principally on hand work are usually paid by the dozen pieces. In general, the industry is not efficiently organized and contractors generally believe that the industry should be subject to regulation.

The most important needlework products made or processed in Puerto Rico are handkerchiefs, women's underwear, children's dresses, and art linens, although many other types of garments are made.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENTS

In the fiscal year 1939-40 there were 113 needlework establishments, employing 5,326 workers, reported to be operating on the Island. These were, as a rule, small shops employing from 5 to 50 workers, although there were a few plants employing 400 or more workers. In the late spring of 1940 the Puerto Rico Department of Labor reported there were 39,000 home workers in the industry. Of this number, 5,787 received work directly from 115 shops and 33,282 received work through 1,331 contractors.

OVERSUPPLY OF LABOR

Puerto Rico is so overcrowded that it ranks as the fifth most densely populated area in the world. Figures recently released by the Bureau of the Census give the population in 1940 as 1,869,260, or 550 persons per square mile. In 1938, the per capita income was estimated to be \$70 so that the problem of the Island is not only overpopulation but extreme poverty as well. As 42 percent of the population is made up of children under 14 years of age, a rigid enforcement of the child-labor law would substantially reduce the total labor supply, as it is generally admitted that many children are employed in the needlework industry. In 1936 it was stated that 82 percent of the total population were on relief rolls. An economic delegation sent to Washington by the Puerto Rico Chamber of Commerce in May 1939, in a statement discussing the factors which should be considered in arriving at a solution of the complex problems of the Island, listed as one of the fundamental causes of the "precipitous decline in trade and income and tragic increase in unemployment," the extension to the Island of the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act "which has resulted in substantial curtailment of employment and earning power." In June 1940, Congress approved an amendment to the act relating to Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, which authorized the Administrator to appoint a special committee or committees to recommend the minimum rate or rates of wages for all employees in each of those jurisdictions engaged in commerce, in the production of goods for commerce, or in production of goods for commerce in

particular industries. The amendment also provided for the establishment of minimum piece rates (commensurate with the applicable minimum hourly wage rates) for home workers in Puerto Rico or the Virgin Islands.

HEALTH CONDITIONS

The United States Public Health Service reported, in a study of illness and medical care in Puerto Rico in 1937, that the total death rate was approximately twice as high on the Island as on the continent. The sickness rate was also found to be considerably higher than in a selected area in the United States. "Low incomes, crowded and unsanitary homes, inadequate diet, and the prevalence of certain endemic diseases are factors which contribute to the high rate of illness in Puerto Rico." The study showed that illness rates declined steadily as the family income increased. The rate ranged from 444 cases per 1,000 persons in families whose annual income was less than \$100 to 297 per 1,000 in families with an income of \$750 or more. Since one-half of the entire population of the Island falls in the income category of less than \$100, it is evident that the higher illness rate prevails much more generally than the lower.

Tuberculosis is perhaps the most outstanding public health problem. This is shown by a comparison of the death rates with those of continental United States over a period of 15 years. For the most recent 5-year period, 1930-34, the average death rate was nearly five times as high on the Island as in the States and, although the mortality rates may not be strictly comparable in all respects, the gross picture is that of a declining rate for the States and a gradual upward trend in Puerto Rico. This is regarded as a direct effect of the dense population and low incomes.

Hookworm infestation is extremely common, and it has been estimated that 90 percent of the rural population is infected. Efforts to reduce the inroads of the disease have been unsuccessful, because public funds have been insufficient and because the people are too poor to buy the shoes which are absolutely indispensable in preventing the spread of the disease.

SEX AND SKILL OF WORKERS

In a special study by the Puerto Rico Department of Labor covering 85 percent of the workers in needlework establishments it was shown that 82 percent were females.

Although the needlework done prior to the World War was of superior quality, the expansion of the industry has been accompanied by the recruiting of less skilled workers, so that much of the commercial embroidery is now of an inferior quality. In spite of the predominance of cheap work, however, there is still very fine work done in Puerto Rico and skilled labor is still plentiful.

EMPLOYMENT FLUCTUATIONS

The needlework industry is carried on throughout the year but there are two peak periods; namely, pre-Christmas and pre-Easter. There has been an attempt on the part of many of the contractors to smooth out their production by a change of products during the slack months, which has met with some success, but in general the 3 months preceding Christmas and Easter have been the busiest seasons.

UNIONIZATION

There are three unions in the Puerto Rico needlework industry—one affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, and two independent unions. One of the independent unions claims a membership of 5,000 workers, including 500 home workers, but the membership of the two other unions, which is not reported, is believed to be negligible. There are also, two labor cooperatives with a combined membership of 2,530 workers.

INSULAR LABOR LAWS

The government of Puerto Rico has enacted a number of laws relating to labor, several of which deal with home work, and the work of women and children.

In 1919 a law was passed, which was later upheld by the courts, establishing a minimum wage of \$4 per week for women under 18 years of age and of \$6 for those over that age. An 8-hour day in commerce, industry, and agriculture was established by a law passed in 1935, while a law enacted in 1931 provided that the entire amount due a laborer in wages should be paid in United States currency at intervals not to exceed 1 week.

Industrial work in homes is regulated by a law passed in 1939, effective in 1940. The law prohibits the home-work manufacture of certain articles, gives the labor department the power to make investigations and to determine "whether conditions of employment are injurious to the health and welfare of home workers" or "whether wages prevailing * * * have the effect of rendering unduly difficult the maintenance of existing labor standards." Contractors and subcontractors are required to procure permits and to keep records of home workers, addresses, wages paid, etc. The law provides penalties for infractions.

The work of women and children is subject to regulation under a law passed in 1919 which has since been amended several times. Under the present act, approved in 1938, the minimum age in any gainful occupation, except domestic work and work in gardens and on farms, is fixed at 14 years; and employment certificates are required for employment during school term for children between the

ages of 14 and 16, except domestic work and work in gardens. Night work and certain hazardous occupations are prohibited.

PRICES

As a result of competition between contractors, between mainland firms supplying the contractors, between buyers, and between retailers, the prices paid for these hand-made products have been reduced to practically the same prices as are paid for machine-made articles. This reduction in prices has been accompanied also by a decline in the quality of the workmanship on these articles. In addition to the factor of volume production of cheap articles, the return of foreign needlework products to the market, after a decline in imports following the last war, added an element of competition which had to be met by further reductions in prices. "In the face of declining prices, costs give way, or are adjusted, at the point of least resistance, and wages in Puerto Rico have always offered little resistance to depressing influences. All of this has resulted, in the final analysis, in the worker of Puerto Rico suffering because of the competition within the industry." It is stated that there are few people in the industry who do not believe that the worker should get more. It is pointed out that the improvement of workers' conditions does not mean necessarily a change in the price structure of the industry, but a financial margin which would allow increased wages to workers might result from the elimination of "chiselers" and the practice of price cutting.

WAGES

A study was made in 1939-40 by the Puerto Rico Department of Labor of the average hourly earnings of workers in 78 establishments engaged in interstate commerce, in 6 branches of the needlework industry; namely, children's garments, gloves, handkerchiefs and art linen, waists, women's dresses, and women's underwear. The wage data covering 3,304 workers were taken for a week some time after November 1, 1939.

The table following shows that the most marked concentrations of workers were in the group having hourly earnings of 12 but less than 13 cents (13.9 percent) and in the group earning 25 but less than 26 cents (13.7 percent). The first concentration is attributed to Insular laws and the second to the Fair Labor Standards Act.

The wages of home workers are much lower than those of workers employed in the needlework establishments. No recent survey of the wages of these workers has been made, but according to a survey made by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor in 1933-34, 84 percent of the home workers included were earning 3 cents or less per hour. The weekly earnings in 199 families covered in the

same survey amounted to less than 50 cents in about one-fifth of the families, while in almost four-fifths of the families earnings amounted to less than \$3 a week.

Average Earnings of Workers in 78 Establishments in Puerto Rico in 6 Branches of Needlework Industry, 1939-40

Average earnings per hour	Total		Males		Females	
	Workers	Percent	Workers	Percent	Workers	Percent
Less than 5 cents	8	0.2			8	0.3
5 but less than 6 cents	4	.1	1	0.2	3	.1
6 but less than 7 cents	9	.3			9	.3
7 but less than 8 cents	6	.2	1	.2	5	.2
8 but less than 9 cents	11	.3	3	.6	8	.3
9 but less than 10 cents	29	.9	5	1.0	24	.9
10 but less than 11 cents	28	.8	2	.4	26	.9
11 but less than 12 cents	30	.9	2	.4	28	1.0
12 but less than 13 cents	458	13.9	17	3.3	441	15.9
13 but less than 14 cents	204	6.2	22	4.2	182	6.5
14 but less than 15 cents	122	3.7	16	3.1	106	3.8
15 but less than 16 cents	235	7.2	28	5.4	207	7.4
16 but less than 17 cents	132	4.0	15	2.9	117	4.2
17 but less than 18 cents	134	4.1	23	4.4	111	4.0
18 but less than 19 cents	110	3.3	32	6.2	78	2.8
19 but less than 20 cents	103	3.1	16	3.1	87	3.1
20 but less than 21 cents	94	2.8	20	3.9	74	2.7
21 but less than 22 cents	56	1.7	18	3.5	38	1.4
22 but less than 23 cents	70	2.1	23	4.4	47	1.7
23 but less than 24 cents	76	2.3	14	2.7	62	2.2
24 but less than 25 cents	107	3.2	17	3.3	90	3.2
25 but less than 26 cents	451	13.7	89	17.2	362	13.1
26 but less than 27 cents	99	3.0	28	5.4	71	2.5
27 but less than 28 cents	63	1.9	20	3.9	43	1.5
28 but less than 29 cents	49	1.5	13	2.5	36	1.3
29 but less than 30 cents	79	2.4	9	1.7	70	2.5
30 but less than 31 cents	278	8.4	35	6.7	243	8.7
31 but less than 32 cents	70	2.1	13	2.5	57	2.0
32 but less than 33 cents	49	1.5	5	.9	44	1.6
33 but less than 34 cents	18	.5	5	.9	13	.5
34 but less than 35 cents	21	.6	5	.9	16	.6
35 but less than 40 cents	48	1.5	8	1.5	40	1.4
40 but less than 45 cents	16	.5	4	.8	12	.4
45 but less than 50 cents	13	.4	2	.4	11	.4
50 cents and over	24	.7	8	1.5	16	.6
Total	3,304	100.0	519	100.0	2,785	100.0

*Wage Order*²

Under an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act, which allowed an exception to the statutory minimum of 30 cents per hour for workers in Puerto Rico, the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division was empowered to fix piece rates which are to be paid in lieu of hourly rates. An order issued November 25, fixed piece rates for more than 300 hand-sewing operations. The rates are initial piecework rates and may be revised if experience so dictates. The piece

² U. S. Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press releases, November 16 and 25, 1940.

rates are computed to yield at least the following hourly rates set in an order of November 16:

12½ cents an hour for work in the home on handkerchiefs, household articles, cotton underwear, infants' wear, needlepoint, and hand-hooked rugs.

15 cents an hour for work in the home on silk underwear.

20 cents an hour for work in the home and the factory on children's, ladies', men's, and boys' apparel.

20 cents an hour for work in factories on handkerchiefs, household articles, cotton underwear, infants' wear, needlepoint, and hand-hooked rugs.

22½ cents an hour for work in the factories on silk underwear.

The regulations setting the piece-work rates call for the registration of all embroidery and other designs and operations with the Wage and Hour Office in San Juan, Puerto Rico, and also require certain record-keeping on the part of the contractor in Puerto Rico who receives material from the mainland and sends it out to homes of needleworkers through agents.

The order was made effective December 2, 1940.

LIFE INSURANCE AMONG LOW-INCOME FAMILIES

THE extent to which wage earners, particularly in the low-income groups, have invested in life insurance was the subject of a report¹ by the insurance section of the Securities and Exchange Commission in connection with its investigation of life insurance for presentation to the Temporary National Economic Committee.

Below are given, in full, the conclusions of the report, followed by a summary of the facts developed in the survey.

Conclusions

Life insurance should be sold and purchased in terms of the needs and income of the particular family. The insurance requirements of the individual must be viewed in the light of his place in the family. The extent to which he contributes to the support of the family, the degree to which the family is able to set aside a portion of its income for insurance premiums, the age of its members, and many other similar factors must be taken into account in determining a family's insurance program. These considerations apply regardless of the type of policy or class of insurance involved and are particularly applicable to the low-income families where margins between income and the amount required to purchase necessities are slim and, in fact, in many cases practically nonexistent. It was for this reason that this report has presented its findings in terms of the family group rather than the individual.

In appraising the findings, therefore, one must keep in mind the characteristics of the typical family group whose insurance holdings are reported. The families are low-income families. Of the 1,666 insured families, 1,360 received less than \$600 a year per family member and as many as 38 percent received less than \$300 a year per family member. Furthermore, a quarter of the families were receiving some form of public assistance. The size of the family groups and the occupations and nationalities of their members are varied. It may be said that these families are typical of the mass of people living in the congested industrial communities of this country. Persons in this class have few luxuries and indeed their standard of living is so low that they are often actually in need.

It is evident that among families in the densely populated industrial areas like those covered in the survey, life insurance is purchased more

¹ Temporary National Economic Committee: *Families and Their Life Insurance—A Study of 2,132 Massachusetts Families and Their Life Insurance Policies*. Washington, 1940. Based on data obtained in a field survey of life-insurance policyholders, conducted in Greater Boston in 1939 as a Work Projects Administration project, sponsored by the Securities and Exchange Commission and made for the Temporary National Economic Committee. Conduct of the survey and analysis of results were under the supervision of Prof. Donald H. Davenport of Harvard University, now of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

generally than had previously been supposed. The amount of insurance in force in these families demonstrates their great desire for security. This is borne out by the facts that 92 percent of all families interviewed were either carrying insurance at the time or had done so in the past; there were over 10,000 policies in force in the 1,666 insured families which represented 78 percent of all families interviewed; and in insured families as many as 83 out of every 100 persons were insured for an average of \$683 of insurance each. The average insured family spent 4.9 percent of its income for insurance premiums, with amounts spent ranging as high as 24 percent of income in the case of some families. Policyholders were found to be of both sexes, every age, every occupation, and to bear every conceivable relation to the family group. The extent to which children were insured and insurance carried on persons not living in the immediate family gave indication of the widespread use of life insurance among these low-income families.

Further evidence with respect to the social and economic importance of life insurance was produced in the statistics which showed that life insurance is the principal and in many instances the only means of savings for these low-income families. Of all the families interviewed, as many as 66.1 percent used life insurance as the sole means of accumulating their savings.

It was found that industrial insurance is by far the most important form of insurance sold to the type of family covered by this survey. Measured in terms of the number of insured persons, there were 79.41 percent who carried industrial insurance. In terms of the number of families insured, over 85 percent carried industrial insurance. Seven hundred and one families carried no other form of insurance except industrial insurance. Of all the life insurance in force, four out of every five policies were industrial policies and such policies accounted for 49.6 percent of the total amount of insurance in force. Sixty-four percent of the amount paid in premiums was paid as premiums on industrial policies.

Life-insurance companies have a great social responsibility to provide their services as efficiently and equitably as possible. In addition there is a responsibility which rests particularly upon companies writing industrial insurance. In view of the great reliance of the low-income families upon this type of insurance, companies selling industrial insurance have an obligation to see that these families are sold the kinds and amounts of protection best suited to their needs. In this type of family the amount which can be set aside for premiums is small and the great need of this group for better housing conditions, more food, better clothing, and greater opportunities for education must be recognized. In this type of family, income is unusually subject to fluctuations, and if too large a percentage of the family income has been allocated to insurance premiums, the result is likely

to be lapse and loss of protection. This survey suggests that the industrial companies have fallen far short of achieving the ideal. In brief, a situation is disclosed which demonstrates, as far as these 2,132 families are concerned, that there is an overloading of policies in many families, that frequently a higher percentage of the family income is being spent for insurance, that insurance coverage among the family members is unevenly distributed, that expensive forms of endowment and limited-payment policies have been placed in families when the needs of the policyholders could often be served better with a less expensive type of policy, and that as a result of this unsound distribution and the changing economic circumstances of the policyholders there is much lapsing of policies. The situation is made particularly acute by the fact that these tendencies appear more prevalent the lower the economic status of the family.

The high percentage which premiums bear to the total incomes of these families reveals other abuses prevalent in the distribution system. That low-income families, where the average per family member income is in the neighborhood of \$300, should be spending as much as 24 percent of that income for insurance premiums is inexcusable and it is startling to realize that 9.59 percent of the nonrelief families and 8.67 percent of the relief families spent 10 percent or more of their income upon insurance premiums.

An examination of the insurance program of the 1,666 insured families disclosed but very few cases which from the point of view of plan of policies, relative cost, and distribution of coverage among various members of the family group were entirely satisfactory. This is not to say that other cases do not exist within this group which are free of unfavorable criticism from the point of view of a planned program. Occasionally the lack of insurability of certain members, religious considerations, or an unwillingness on the part of the policyholder proper to follow recommendations which possibly were received from his agent may have had some bearing, and these facts cannot be weighed on the basis of the statistical information. The lack of adequate planning may be partially accounted for by the fact that 21.3 percent of the families are serviced by industrial agents representing two or more companies; that 84 families carried more than 15 policies each at the same time, with numbers ranging as high as 43 policies in the case of one family; and that insurance is sold in a great variety of the different combinations both as to classes and plans. The failure of the distributing system to give proper service to the insured is clearly demonstrated in the many families where the breadwinner was inadequately insured. The breadwinner who earns the principal income of the family is the person whose loss will be most keenly felt by the family. It is against the loss of this individual's income that the family's insurance program should be chiefly

directed. In view of these considerations it was startling to find that in the insured families 11.58 percent of the chief breadwinners and 20.21 percent of the "other breadwinners" were not insured at all, and that from among 1,071 families which carried industrial insurance there were 730 cases where the percentage of premiums paid by the family for insurance on the life of the chief breadwinner was less than 50 percent of the total. Such a tremendous preponderance of maladjusted cases was found that there can be no doubt that the distributing mechanism for industrial insurance is defective. The overemphasis upon endowment and limited-payment policies, particularly on the lives of children, the failure adequately to insure breadwinners, the great number of lapsed policies found in many insured families numbering as high as 35 policies in the case of one family interviewed, and the heavy sale of insurance to families on relief bear witness to the weaknesses in the system as it now exists. The matter is made far more serious by the everchanging economic circumstances of low-income families and the apparent absence of any techniques for satisfactorily readjusting insurance programs in the light of these changing circumstances.

The above observations are based solely upon a review of the statistical information obtained through the field survey. The Commission's final conclusions must await publication of its over-all report on the life-insurance study. The report, which is to be released later, will relate the material made available by the survey with other facts developed in the course of the hearings before the committee, including the testimony concerning lapse and agency practices.

Summary of Facts Developed in Survey

Industrial insurance is a form of life insurance sold in small units principally to low-income families by agents who collect premiums monthly or weekly at the homes of the insured. The report states there are approximately 90,000,000 industrial policies in force in the United States, held by about 50,000,000 persons. This number is much larger than that for those holding all other forms of life insurance. At the end of December 1937 there was nearly 20.6 billion dollars of industrial insurance in force in the 138 companies engaged in its sale, and premiums during that year alone amounted to approximately three-fourths of a billion dollars.

Although industrial insurance was found to be the most expensive form of life insurance sold, it is distributed primarily to low-income families, and testimony before the Temporary National Economic Committee revealed that it is frequently sold by high-pressure sales methods. As a result of selling pressure and high cost, as well as other factors, it was shown that a large percentage of industrial insurance

lapsed and also that the high-pressure selling method frequently resulted in an unwise distribution of industrial policies among the various members of a family group.

In order to answer the questions raised by the testimony before the Committee, it was decided that a survey limited to a small group of policyholders, but made on a basis which assured the greatest possible accuracy, was desirable. Since the regulation of life insurance is relatively stringent in Massachusetts and since its laws, particularly those affecting industrial insurance, have been considered among the best, that State was chosen for the survey. In addition, only the three largest companies selling industrial insurance (the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., The Prudential Insurance Co. of America, and the John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Co.) and one small company (the Boston Mutual Life Insurance Co.) were selling industrial insurance in the State in contrast with 27 companies, for example, selling this type of insurance in Maryland. It was considered that these facts would make for a more conservative study and one simpler in presentation. The survey was necessarily restricted in the amount of time and money that could be spent upon it and it was decided, therefore, to limit it to families living in industrial areas in metropolitan Boston. The field survey was carried out during August, September, and October 1939.

SCOPE OF THE SURVEY

Since the study was for the purpose primarily of studying industrial insurance, the areas selected were, in general, those occupied by the lower income groups although they represented varied living and housing conditions. Thirty-five separate groups of families were selected for enumeration and each of the groups selected, except two, consisted of families living in city blocks where the housing conditions in each case were fairly similar. All families in these blocks were considered within the scope of the survey. The two other groups were made up of Negro families which were visited in different sections of the city and families living in a low-rent housing project of the United States Housing Authority.

Full and complete schedules were obtained from 2,132 of the 3,548 families living in the areas selected. The families not enumerated were away, sick, quarantined, or unwilling or unable to give complete information. There was a total of 8,794 persons living at home in the 2,132 families, while in 259 cases these families were paying premiums for other persons who were living away from the family and for the most part contributing nothing to the family income. The survey covered the number, sex, marital status, and race of members of the family; the employment status and occupations of those employed; family income, including salary and wages during the last 12 months,

WPA wages and other cash relief, and any other income; and detailed information on the insurance carried by each member of the family. The insurance data covered the class of insurance (industrial, ordinary, fraternal, or group); date of issue of the policy; type of insurance (whole life, limited-payment life, endowment, and term); current premium payments and whether paid weekly, monthly, or at longer intervals; policies on which payments were in arrears, and those on which loans had been made.

ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE FAMILIES

Although the areas included in the survey were limited to those occupied by the lower income groups they varied over a wide range of conditions, ranging from well-built single or double houses to congested tenement blocks.

Only those persons who were living with their families or were absent temporarily were counted as members of a family and single persons living alone were designated as one-member families. The families varied in size from 120 single-member families to 41 families consisting of 10 or more persons. Families with three or four members were the typical ones, representing 42 percent of the entire number of families covered by the survey.

The aggregate annual income of the 2,132 families was \$3,013,423. The average family income for the entire group was \$1,413, but the range was from those with no incomes to three families (with five or more breadwinners) each of which had annual incomes of over \$6,000. The annual income included not only the earnings of family members, but the value of commodities received from charities, and net profits from any real estate or other business operations.

The total family income was not used as a measure of economic status in the study, however, as possible expenditures for life-insurance premiums, or any other need of the family would obviously be entirely different, for example, in a family of two persons with an income of \$1,400 a year and a family of five persons with the same income. Because of this fact the measure of economic status was based on the average annual income per family member. The average per-capita income for all the families covered in the survey was \$343. In the insured families the average was \$367 and in the uninsured families \$250.

Nearly one-third of the 2,132 families, or 696 families, were totally or partially supported by some form of relief. Of the total number surveyed, 1,666 families were carrying insurance, of which 415 were relief families, while of the 466 families with no insurance 281 were on relief. There was a rather general belief among low-income families that those applying for relief were not allowed any insurance holdings, although it could not be ascertained that such a policy had

ever been declared by public welfare officials. However, this widespread belief may have had some bearing on the fact that 40 percent of the relief families had no insurance, while only 13 percent of the nonrelief families were uninsured.

AMOUNTS OF INSURANCE IN FORCE

There were 10,150 life-insurance policies actually in force among the 2,132 families covered in the study, and most of the uninsured had been insured at some time in the past. Many of them showed the enumerators policies which were no longer in force, or policies on which they had ceased paying premiums but which were in force as extended or paid-up insurance. Frequently the persons interviewed had no idea whether the policies were in force or not and often did not know how many policies they had or on how many they were paying premiums, so that it was necessary for the enumerators to examine all the policies held by the family and check them against the premium receipt books. The average number of policies per family for all the families surveyed was 4.8 and for the 1,666 insured families alone, 6.1 policies per family. The total amount of insurance in force, that is, the amount which would have been paid by the issuing company on the particular policy if death had taken place on the date of enumeration, was \$4,069,385, or an average of \$401 per policy. This amount may be less or more than the face of the policy depending on the age of the insured, the age of the policy, and the mortuary or other dividend rates established by the issuing company.

There was a total of 6,050 insured individuals in the 1,666 families, including the 259 persons who were not living with their families. Among the 5,791 in the family groups, there was a total of 9,782 policies amounting to \$3,954,319 in force, or an average of 1.69 policies and \$683 insurance per insured person. Among the persons not living with their families, there were 368 policies totaling \$115,066 in value and averaging 1.42 policies and \$444 insurance per person.

CLASSES OF INSURANCE

There are wide differences in the methods of selling the four main classes of life insurance—industrial, ordinary, group, and fraternal. Unlike ordinary and fraternal insurance, industrial and group insurance are usually sold without medical examination. Group insurance is written on a yearly term basis and covers a group of persons, usually employees of a single employer, under a master policy which provides benefits for each employee who participates in the program; the other forms of insurance are issued on an individual-policy basis. Industrial-insurance policies are written in small amounts and the premiums collected weekly at the homes of policyholders. This type of insurance usually has a double-indemnity clause which doubles

the benefit in case of accidental death, and also a clause waiving the payment of premiums in the case of total and permanent disability. In ordinary insurance these provisions usually depend upon the payment of an extra premium. The selection of either industrial or ordinary policies by the insured persons depends more upon the independent negotiation of the individual and the agent than is the case in either group- or fraternal-insurance policies.

Among the 10,150 policies in force in the 1,666 insured families, 8,214 were industrial policies, 1,265 ordinary policies, 395 group certificates, and 276 fraternal policies. The average amounts of insurance in force for the different classes of policies were: Group, \$1,151; ordinary, \$1,110; fraternal, \$691; and industrial, \$246. The total amount of insurance in force among the surveyed groups was: Industrial, \$2,020,158; ordinary, \$1,404,024 (including \$84,586 of savings-bank life insurance); group, \$454,597; and fraternal, \$190,606. Thus, it appears that industrial insurance was the most significant class of insurance, since it accounted for almost as much insurance as all the other classes combined.

The complexity frequently found in family insurance programs is shown by the extent to which the several classes of life insurance were found in various combinations in different families. Industrial insurance was held by 1,463 families, and 701 of these had no other kinds of life insurance. The following statement shows the various combinations of insurance found among the insured families:

	<i>Number of families</i>
All classes of life insurance.....	1, 666
Industrial insurance.....	1, 463
Industrial life insurance only.....	701
Industrial and ordinary only.....	370
Industrial, group, and/or fraternal only.....	198
Industrial, ordinary, group, and/or fraternal.....	194
Ordinary only.....	104
Ordinary, group, and/or fraternal only.....	36
Group and/or fraternal only.....	63

The survey showed that life insurance is regarded as a necessity by the great majority of the families covered in the report, since a large percentage of the families in the lowest income classes (including those on relief) carry life-insurance policies. Among the nonrelief families of two or more members with annual incomes of less than \$200 per family member, 70.6 to 75.8 percent were insured, the proportion increasing (as income increased) to 93.5 percent for those with incomes of \$600 and over. In the relief families, the corresponding percentages were 35.7 to 53.7 percent and 90 percent, respectively. There were very few relief families, of course, with the higher incomes per family

member and these were found where a great deal of sickness existed and the families had received an unusual amount of relief.

Classification of the families according to their economic status showed that there were 628 families in which the average annual income per family member was under \$300, 732 families in which it ranged from \$300 to \$600, and 306 families in which it exceeded \$600.

Table 1 shows the amount of insurance in force for these groups for the four different classes of insurance.

TABLE 1.—Classes of Insurance in Force in Families Classified by Economic Status

Average annual income per family member	Number of families	Amount					Percent				
		Industrial	Ordinary	Group	Fraternal	Total	Industrial	Ordinary	Group	Fraternal	Total
All groups.....	1, 666	\$2,020,158	\$1, 404, 024	\$454, 597	\$190, 606	\$4, 069, 385	49. 64	34. 50	11. 17	4. 69	100. 0
Under \$300.....	628	833, 088	256, 533	118, 283	31, 823	1, 239, 727	67. 20	20. 69	9. 54	2. 57	100. 0
\$300 to \$599.....	732	885, 342	697, 599	214, 930	101, 750	1, 899, 621	46. 61	36. 72	11. 31	5. 36	100. 0
\$600 and over....	306	301, 728	449, 892	121, 384	57, 033	930, 037	32. 44	48. 37	13. 05	6. 14	100. 0

The data indicated a definite relationship between economic status and the class of insurance held. Since the relative importance of ordinary, group, and fraternal insurance increases as income increases, it is the families in the lowest economic levels that rely to the greatest extent on industrial insurance which is purchasable in small units and on a weekly premium plan.

AGE AND SEX IN RELATION TO CLASS OF INSURANCE HELD

Age was found to be a factor in the different classes of insurance held. Thus, in group and fraternal insurance, which depend upon employment or upon membership in a social organization, the insurance is limited to adults; also, ordinary insurance, found usually in the higher income groups, is in most cases placed on the breadwinner to provide insurance against the loss of the family's main source of income. On the other hand, industrial insurance, purchased by families in the lower income groups is not confined to breadwinners, and as it is typically carried on all members of a family there is little question that it is taken out largely as sickness and burial insurance.

The ages of the holders of industrial and ordinary policies at the time of the survey showed marked concentrations below the age of 20 years for industrial policies and between the ages of 20 and 40 for ordinary policies. In this classification two kinds of ordinary policies were omitted, i.e., those sold in amounts of less than \$1,000 on which the premium is paid monthly (in pattern, more nearly like industrial policies) and savings-bank insurance which was established as a less expensive substitute for industrial insurance. Whereas less than 1 percent of the ordinary policies in force were on children under 10

years of age, over 20 percent of the industrial policies were on children under 10, and one-quarter were on children under 12 years.

The age at which the policies were issued brings out even more sharply the difference in the age distribution of holders of the two types of policies. Sixty-three percent of the ordinary policies as compared with 28 percent of the industrial policies were taken out by persons between the ages of 20 and 40, while only one-fifth of the ordinary policies in comparison with over half of the industrial policies had been issued to persons less than 20 years of age.

Table 2 shows the number and percent of industrial and ordinary policies in force at the time the survey was made, classified according to age.

TABLE 2.—*Industrial and Ordinary Policies, Classified According to Age of Policyholder*

Age of policyholder	Present age				Age at issuance of policy			
	Number		Percent		Number		Percent	
	Indus-trial	Ordinary ¹	Indus-trial	Ordinary	Indus-trial	Ordinary ¹	Indus-trial	Ordinary
All ages.....	8,214	1,020	100.0	100.0	8,214	1,020	100.0	100.0
70 years and over.....	191	9	2.3	.9				
60 to 69 years.....	536	42	6.5	4.1	139	1	1.7	.1
50 to 59 years.....	817	114	9.9	11.2	492	30	6.0	2.9
40 to 49 years.....	795	180	9.7	17.7	908	132	11.1	13.0
30 to 39 years.....	1,031	287	12.6	28.1	981	245	11.9	24.0
20 to 29 years.....	1,388	267	16.9	26.1	1,355	400	16.5	39.2
10 to 19 years.....	1,757	113	21.4	11.1	1,580	201	19.2	19.7
9 years or less.....	1,699	8	20.7	.8	2,759	11	33.6	1.1

¹ Not including savings-bank life insurance or "monthly ordinary" policies for less than \$1,000.

Further evidence of the basic differences between industrial and ordinary life insurance is shown in a classification of the two types of policies by sex. Of 8,214 industrial policies, 54 percent were issued on the lives of females but only 34 percent of 1,265 ordinary policies had been issued for females. The difference was even greater when age as well as sex was considered, since as age increased the males held a consistently larger proportion of ordinary life insurance than females, while the proportion of industrial insurance became progressively smaller as age increased.

PLANS OF INSURANCE POLICIES

The four general types of insurance plans dealt with in the study were whole life, limited-payment life, endowment, and term. Whole-life insurance, under which premiums are paid by the insured person during life and the company contracts to pay the amount of insurance at death, carries premium rates higher than term insurance but lower than those charged for endowments or limited-payment life policies. This plan is found in three classes of insurance—industrial, ordinary,

and fraternal. Of all insurance on the whole-life plan, the industrial whole-life policies accounted for 51.72 percent; ordinary, for 38.24 percent; and fraternal, for 10.04 percent. The total insurance in force under this plan was \$1,898,366, of which \$981,776 was industrial, \$725,984 ordinary, and \$190,606 fraternal.

Policies under the limited-payment life plan provide for insurance payable at death but with premiums payable for a limited period. Because the premiums, large enough to cover the whole life, are payable for a relatively short period, the rates charged are relatively higher than those charged for whole-life or term policies. Life insurance under this plan among the group studied amounted to \$842,098, or 20.69 percent of the total. This plan of insurance was restricted to the ordinary and industrial classes of insurance, almost 55 percent of the insurance under this plan being ordinary and the remainder industrial.

Under the endowment plan, the amount of the insurance policy is paid if death occurs within the period fixed (usually 15, 20, or 25 years); otherwise, at the end of the period the amount of insurance named in the policy is payable to the insured person. Endowment policies are also written to mature at a certain age, frequently at age 65. Endowment insurance, among the group studied, was found only in the industrial and ordinary classes of insurance. The amount of insurance written under the endowment plan amounted to \$799,171, or 19.64 percent of the total. Industrial-endowment insurance in force amounted to over three times as much as the endowment insurance of the ordinary class.

Term insurance is payable only in case death occurs within the period of term (usually 5 to 10 years) named in the policy, and premiums are payable during the same term. Industrial insurance is not issued as term insurance by any of the four companies selling industrial insurance in Massachusetts. However, both ordinary and industrial insurance which has been in force long enough to acquire nonforfeiture rights in both ordinary and industrial policies may be converted to the term plan and is then known as extended term insurance. Term policies accounted for \$529,750 insurance, or 13.02 percent of the total amount of insurance in force. Group insurance is written exclusively on the term plan and accounted for 85.22 percent of this insurance, about 9 percent of the remainder being industrial and 5 percent, ordinary insurance.

Classification of the 8,214 industrial policies according to the type of insurance plan and age at issue of the respective policyholders indicated that the industrial insurance written on the lives of young persons was predominantly on the endowment plan. Of the policies written on infants less than 2 years old, approximately 69 percent were endowments while 59 percent of those between 2 and 10 years

of age were endowments. With increased age, however, the percentage of endowments decreased, so that in the 50- to 60-year group less than 5 percent were endowments. Whole-life policies, on the other hand, showed an opposite trend, as less than 22 percent of the policies written on lives under 2 years were of this plan, but as age increased the percentage increased until in the 60- to 70-year group whole-life policies accounted for almost 94 percent of all policies.

An analysis of 8,022 industrial policies according to type of plan and number of years in force showed that 3,945 or 49.2 percent had been in force for less than 5 years. In general these policies do not acquire nonforfeiture values that may be taken in cash (upon surrender) until premiums have been paid for at least 5 years. Of these policies 1,547 were whole life, 947 limited payment, and 1,451 endowment. In the year preceding enumeration there was a reduction in the number of industrial endowment policies issued and an increase in the limited-payment life policies. This reduction in endowments was attributed to the decision of the three major companies not to issue any further policies of this type, as a result of the enactment of a New York law forbidding the sale of industrial endowments in that State after December 31, 1938.

RELATION OF BREADWINNERS TO THE FAMILY INSURANCE

In the study, a breadwinner was defined as one whose annual earnings amounted to at least 50 percent of the average income per family member in his family, and the chief breadwinner as the one who earned the largest part of the total family income no matter what his relationship to the family. As breadwinners, particularly the chief breadwinner, are of the greatest economic importance to the family, the death of the breadwinner not only imposes heavy expenses but also removes the source of family income from which premium payments have to be met. As a result, lapses of all policies are likely to follow the death of a breadwinner. In planning an insurance program, therefore, it is evident that the largest part of a family's life insurance should be placed on the individual or individuals whose death would occasion the greatest financial loss.

The typical family is a one-breadwinner family, although among the 1,251 nonrelief families there were 12 families with five or more breadwinners each. Among the nonrelief families 69 percent and among the relief families 64 percent had only one breadwinner. In the 1,666 insured families 11.58 percent of the chief breadwinners and 20.21 percent of the other breadwinners were not insured, while only 17.93 percent of the dependents were uninsured. A total of 5,791 persons, or 66 percent of the 8,794 men, women, and children in the families surveyed, carried insurance. Of this number 1,942 were breadwinners and 3,849 dependents. The average amount of

insurance for the entire group was \$683 per insured person. There was one person who had insurance amounting to \$15,619, and eight others who carried insurance in excess of \$8,000 each. However, the great majority were insured for relatively small amounts, as half of the number covered were insured for less than \$476 and one-fourth for less than \$256.

COST OF LIFE INSURANCE

The annual premiums paid by the 1,666 insured families amounted to \$125,794.26 after the value of dividends declared to policyholders were deducted.

The percentage of family income paid by nonrelief and relief families for insurance premiums is shown in table 3.

TABLE 3.—1,666 Insured Families Classified According to Percent of Income Paid as Life-Insurance Premiums

Family income paid for insurance premiums	Insured families			
	Number		Percent	
	Nonrelief	Relief	Nonrelief	Relief
24 percent and over.....	3	1	0.24	0.24
22 to 23.9 percent.....	3	1	.24	.24
20 to 21.9 percent.....	3		.24	
18 to 19.9 percent.....	3	2	.24	.48
16 to 17.9 percent.....	6	2	.48	.48
14 to 15.9 percent.....	17	3	1.36	.72
12 to 13.9 percent.....	16	10	1.28	2.41
10 to 11.9 percent.....	69	17	5.51	4.10
9 to 9.9 percent.....	47	9	3.76	2.17
8 to 8.9 percent.....	76	20	6.08	4.82
7 to 7.9 percent.....	94	20	7.51	4.82
6 to 6.9 percent.....	96	22	7.67	5.30
5 to 5.9 percent.....	148	46	11.83	11.08
4 to 4.9 percent.....	163	52	13.03	12.53
3 to 3.9 percent.....	167	74	13.35	17.83
2 to 2.9 percent.....	164	50	13.11	12.05
1 to 1.9 percent.....	108	41	8.63	9.88
0.1 to 0.9 percent.....	45	24	3.60	5.78
0 ¹	23	21	1.84	5.07
Total.....	1,251	415	100.00	100.00

¹ Noncontributory insurance.

The table shows that the proportion of the family income ranged from zero (in cases where all the insurance in force was either paid up, extended term, or noncontributory group insurance) to 24 percent and over. However, by far the largest part fell within a narrower range. Thus, the middle half of the nonrelief families paid between 2.83 percent and 7.26 percent of their annual incomes for life-insurance premiums, with a median rate of 4.72 percent. For the relief families the middle half paid from 2.36 percent to 6.15 percent and the median rate was 3.97 percent.

However, relatively large percentages were paid by many families in both groups. Nearly 10 percent of the nonrelief families and 9 percent of the relief families paid premiums in excess of 10 percent of

their respective incomes. Among the families which were insured but were paying no premiums there were almost three times as many relief as nonrelief families. This and other differences in the general patterns of the two distributions are traceable in part to the greater economic pressure upon the relief group and in part to the insurance advice given by the social agencies administering relief.

Analysis of the proportion of the family income spent on insurance premiums in relation to the number of dependents indicated that although the average relief family spends a smaller percentage of its income on insurance than the nonrelief family both groups exhibit the same tendency to spend proportionately more as the number of dependents increases up to seven dependents, after which smaller proportional amounts are expended for insurance.

Table 4 shows the median percent of income spent for insurance by nonrelief and relief families, by number of dependents.

TABLE 4.—Median Percentages of Income Paid for Life-Insurance Premiums by Families With Indicated Number of Dependents

Families having—	Nonrelief families		Relief families	
	Number of families	Median percent of income paid for insurance	Number of families	Median percent of income paid for insurance
7 dependents and over.....	45	5.58	17	3.25
6 dependents.....	47	5.94	33	5.10
5 dependents.....	78	5.92	41	4.50
4 dependents.....	157	5.58	56	4.13
3 dependents.....	270	5.11	79	4.06
2 dependents.....	314	4.30	75	3.97
1 dependent.....	270	4.24	62	3.69
0 dependent.....	70	2.82	52	3.50
Total.....	1,251	4.72	415	3.97

For the purpose of determining the relative burden of insurance cost among the families, the nonrelief group was divided into low, middle, and high income classes, and the relief families into low and middle income classes. It was found that in both groups, on the average, a smaller percentage of the family income was paid for life insurance as the family income increased.

The low-income families, where there was the greatest economic insecurity, were the ones which paid the highest proportions of their income for life insurance. This was true of both the nonrelief and the relief families. One-tenth of the total family income might be considered a large proportion to spend on insurance, yet one in every five low-income nonrelief families was spending this proportion or more of its income for life-insurance premiums. And one out of every ten low-income relief families was spending a similar proportion of its income for insurance. A relatively smaller number of the nonrelief and relief families in the middle and higher income groups was spending this proportion of their incomes for life-insurance premiums. Nevertheless, among all nonrelief families, regardless of income, 9.59 percent of the total number and among relief families 8.67 percent

of the total number were spending one-tenth or more of their incomes for insurance.

From these figures it is evident that it is the families least able financially that pay the greatest relative premiums to carry life insurance. This is particularly significant since * * * it is these families in the lowest income groups which buy the largest proportion of the relatively costly industrial insurance.

Because of the special interest in industrial insurance, an analysis was made of the premiums paid by the 701 families holding only this class of insurance. These families were classified according to the average annual income per family member, and a comparison made of the total premiums paid, the total family incomes, and the percentage ratio of premiums to income. From these figures it appeared there was a consistent indirect relation between economic status and relative burden of insurance cost. In the nonrelief group, families with incomes of less than \$200 per family member paid an average of 7.19 percent of the family income for insurance, this ratio decreasing with each additional \$100 of income to 3.05 percent for the group with incomes of \$700 and over. The average for the entire group was 4.2 percent. In the relief families the percentage of income paid for insurance in the lowest income group was 5.14; in the highest income group, 2.02; and the average for the entire group was 4.24 percent.

OTHER FACTS DISCLOSED BY SURVEY

Various points were brought out in the study which, while not sufficiently related to the main subjects to be discussed with them, were of considerable interest. The first dealt with the multiplicity of insurance contracts held by the various families and revealed something of the confusion that was frequently evident in the policyholder's mind as to the exact nature of the insurance protection he had. Although the average number of policies among the insured families was 6.1, there were wide variations in the number of policies held by individual families. One family was found with 43 separate life-insurance contracts in force. Of the 1,666 families with insurance 84, or 5 percent, had 15 or more policies; 305, or 18 percent, had 10 or more policies; and 620, or 37 percent, had 7 or more.

The study threw new light on multiple-company coverage about which little had been known previously. It was realized that cases of such coverage arise when individuals insured in different companies become members of the same family group. Also, that multiple-company coverage in industrial insurance involving weekly calls by two or more agents at the home of the insured for the dual purpose of collecting premiums and selling new policies might be responsible for some of the confusion existing in family insurance programs. Of the 1,427 families paying premiums on industrial insurance, 272 held policies in two companies, and 31 in three companies.

The lapse and surrender experience of the families enumerated was secured both from the lapsed policies examined by the enumerators and information given by the families as to policies formerly held by them. Of the 1,879 families furnishing information on this point, 728, or 38.74 percent, reported that they had previously held policies which had lapsed or been surrendered. Of the families which held insurance at the time the study was made 34.27 percent reported lapse or surrender experience, and 64.29 percent of the uninsured families had this experience.

In three of the companies selling industrial insurance in the area covered, holders of industrial policies may reduce their premium payments by making them directly at the offices of their respective companies. Of 1,273 families giving information on this point, only 363 reported they had ever followed this practice and from the replies it appeared that many of the families were not aware of this opportunity to reduce their premiums.

A majority of the families were found to prefer the convenience of weekly payments to payments on a monthly basis. Of the 1,346 families reporting on this question 498 indicated they could pay the premiums by the month, but 214 preferred the convenience of weekly payments; while of the 848 families which could not make monthly payments, 744 preferred payments on a weekly basis. The great predominance of families which prefer to pay for their insurance by the week is evidence, it is stated, of one of the great appeals of industrial insurance.

Both the Metropolitan and the John Hancock Insurance Cos. offer visiting-nurse service to their industrial policyholders. The extent to which this service was used was reported by 1,216 of the eligible families. Of this number 515, or 42 percent, had at some time made use of the nursing services. Relief families and those in the low-income group had made more use of this service than those in the high-income group.

Although life-insurance companies differ in many respects from such institutions as savings banks, and insurance premiums are not the same as savings deposited in a bank, the savings feature is frequently stressed in selling life insurance and certain kinds of policies, particularly endowment policies and to a considerable extent limited-payment life policies, are purchased primarily as a means of accumulating savings. This is shown by the fact that 42.2 percent of all industrial premiums are paid on endowment policies, and, also, by the fact that 55.78 percent of all industrial endowments were written on the lives of children under 10 years of age, where presumably the savings aspect has its greatest appeal. Of 2,032 families replying to a question as to whether or not savings banks, cooperative banks, postal savings, or credit unions were used, only 30 percent reported they were using any

method other than life insurance for the accumulation of savings. "There were only 466 families which were not insured at all, but 1,431 families reported that none of their members made use of the other types of formal savings institutions. Whereas 1,056 families held insurance and no other form of savings, there were only 60 uninsured families which made use of these savings institutions. These facts stress the predominant importance of life insurance in the families included in the survey. These families rely upon life insurance to a far greater extent than they do on all other forms of savings institutions combined."

Employment of Aliens

LEGAL RESTRICTIONS ON EMPLOYMENT OF ALIENS IN THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

BEGINNING with provisions of the Civil Code of Ecuador approved in 1887 (and still in force), the movement in Latin America to limit employment or other activities of aliens has spread, until, by December 1940, all the 20 Republics had some such legislation in force. In the United States of America ¹ the movement began earlier but still applies only to a very limited field. The principal legislation now effective in the respective Republics was enacted in the following years: El Salvador, 1926; Guatemala, 1927; Chile, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Uruguay, 1931; Peru, 1932; Cuba and Honduras, 1933; Costa Rica, 1934; Haiti and Panama, 1935; Colombia and Venezuela, 1936; Bolivia, 1937; Dominican Republic, Ecuador, and the United States, 1938; Argentina and Brazil, 1939; and Paraguay, 1940.

The legislation relating to aliens is usually directed to two purposes: (1) The protection of native labor, business, and professions against the competition of aliens; and (2) the promotion of public safety by insuring the retention in the hands of citizens of the lands, resources, businesses, and key positions necessary to national defense.

The usual method of approach to the first of these aims is to specify a minimum proportion of nationals which must be maintained in the total personnel of all or certain specified employing companies. Some countries also reserve to nationals exclusive or preferential rights in the exercise of specified professions or activities. In the various countries whose legislation fixes a definite minimum proportion of nationals, applicable generally or to certain named industries or pursuits, the following percentages are established: Cuba, 50 percent; Argentina and Costa Rica, 60 percent; Brazil, two-thirds; Dominican Republic, 70 percent; Guatemala, Haiti, Nicaragua, Panama, United States (seamen only), and Venezuela, 75 percent; Colombia, Ecuador, El

¹ For the sake of brevity the term "United States" is used throughout this paper to refer to the United States of America. Some references occur to the legislation of the individual States of the United States; similar information for the other American Republics having federal form of Government (Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, and Venezuela) has not been included, as it is not available to the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the present time.

Salvador, Peru, and Uruguay, 80 percent; Bolivia and Chile, 85 percent; and Mexico, 90 percent.

In Argentina, Mexico, the United States, and Uruguay these proportions must be maintained only for wage earners; in Chile, Costa Rica, El Salvador, and Guatemala only for salaried employees; but both classes of workers are covered by the legislation of Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, and Venezuela. Bolivia's legislation on utilization of native labor does not cover agriculture; that of Brazil does not apply to agriculture and other rural industries nor to extractive industries except mining. However, in the legislation of Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Panama, and Peru, agriculture is specifically covered, along with commerce and industry. Nationals employed in mining, in extraction of hydrocarbons, or in both, are protected by laws of Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Peru, and Venezuela.

Several countries stipulate that natives doing the same kind of work as aliens, for a common employer, must receive the same rate of pay. The percentages of pay rolls which must be paid to nationals are specified in the laws of Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Panama, and Peru, and vary from 50 percent in Cuba to 85 percent in Bolivia and Chile.

Certain kinds of business are reserved for nationals in some of the countries. Industries thus reserved include mining and exploitation of water power (Brazil); electrical industry (Mexico); exploitation of petroleum deposits (Paraguay); banking, insurance, and concessions for public service (Brazil); retail trade in general (Chile) or in certain lines (El Salvador (includes manufacture of these, as well) and Haiti); and fisheries in general (Brazil) or in territorial waters (Ecuador and Panama). Provisions reserving to nationals the practice of the professions—or certain enumerated professions—are quite commonly found. Thus only nationals may exercise any of the liberal professions in Brazil and in Mexico. Aliens are likewise excluded from the practice of medicine, optometry, and pharmacy in Panama; from dentistry in Colombia and Panama; from law in the Dominican Republic; from engineering and the teaching profession (specified subjects only) in Cuba; and from most of these professions and from architecture in certain States of the United States. In nearly all cases exceptions are made in the case of technicians and certain highly specialized positions for which no qualified natives are available. In a number of countries naturalized citizens are regarded as nationals, though in some cases only after a specified term of years following naturalization. Some of the above countries also allow admission to reserved industries or occupations for aliens who are from countries with which there are reciprocal arrangements.

Only nationals may hold all or certain specified public offices in Brazil, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Honduras, and Venezuela, or may be employed in public employment in Brazil, Chile (municipal jobs only), Colombia, Honduras, Mexico (Federal employees), and the United States. Nationals are given sole or preferential rights to employment on public works by the legislation of Argentina, Cuba, the United States, and Uruguay.

Other reserved callings include radio announcers (Brazil and Cuba), telegraphers and radiotelegraphers (Honduras), pilotage (Brazil), and professional automobile drivers (Brazil). Various States in the United States reserve to citizens one or more of the following occupations: Salesmen, public accountants, detectives, barbers, insurance officers or agents, undertakers, and peddlers.

The major laws of Bolivia, Chile, Mexico, and Venezuela restricting activities of aliens do not specify occupational fields.

In the interests of national safety, the activities and even in some cases the presence of aliens are restricted by provisions found in the constitutions or laws, or both, of Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Peru. Aliens are prohibited or restricted in the crews of ships of the merchant marine in Brazil, Mexico, and the United States; and these and other countries exclude aliens from officer ranks of the merchant marine. Service in the army is prohibited for aliens in Bolivia, Dominican Republic, and Mexico, in the police force in Mexico, and in aviation in Brazil (with certain temporary exceptions).

A more detailed account of the legislation relating to aliens in the individual American Republics is being published in a separate pamphlet. Copies of this pamphlet will be furnished upon request.



EMPLOYMENT OF ALIENS IN AMERICAN INDUSTRY

IN ORDER to have some indication of the policies of industrial establishments concerning employment of aliens, the National Industrial Conference Board ¹ made a survey of 149 companies having a total of 380,000 employees, the smallest company employing 57 and the largest 34,000 persons. Of the 149 companies, 24 reported 250 employees or less, 26 from 251 to 500 employees, 29 from 501 to 1,000, 50 from

¹ National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. The Conference Board Management Record, Supplement—Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 24, Employment of Aliens and Plant Protection. New York, September 1940.

1,001 to 5,000, and 20 had more than 5,000. The sample consequently constitutes a good cross section of industrial establishments, on a size basis.

The inquiry disclosed that in 16 companies no aliens were on the pay roll. In 30 other companies the proportion of aliens was 1 percent or less of the personnel. Aliens constituted from 15 to 20 percent of the employees in 3 companies, and over 20 percent in 4 others. Of these 7 companies, 6 had from 251 to 1,000 employees. The highest record for any one company was 27 percent.

National Defense Policies

NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT CLEARANCE SYSTEM

THE United States Employment Service of the Social Security Board put into operation on October 28, 1940, a national system for clearance of employers' labor needs and interstate transfer of workers in some 500 occupations which are essential to defense industries.¹ This system supplements the existing interstate clearance machinery maintained cooperatively by the various State employment services.

The national labor-clearance machinery is designed to minimize unplanned and unnecessary movement of workers from one area to another, following rumors of jobs. It will also serve to speed up the interstate transfer of workers to vital defense jobs, where it is required, without depleting any locality of workers who will be needed there in the near future.

Hereafter, employers' orders for defense workers which cannot be filled by the local employment offices within any given State will be referred by the State agencies to one of a network of 13 regional clearance offices covering the entire country. These offices will serve as control points for interstate clearance of orders for key workers in aircraft, tank construction, arms and munitions manufacture, and a number of other defense industries, as well as in the Government-operated shipyards and arsenals which come under Civil Service regulations. Provision has also been made for interregional and Nation-wide clearance of workers, when necessary, with the United States Employment Service at Washington as the focal point.

The regional clearance offices will not themselves accept applications from job seekers nor carry out placements. These activities will be carried on as usual by the local State-operated employment offices. The State services will continue to handle interstate clearance of non-defense workers, although they may use the new national machinery for this purpose if they wish.

The chief function of the regional clearance offices will be to route orders for defense workers which cannot be filled within a State to the localities where such labor may be available, basing their action in each case on current information as to available labor supply and employers' labor requirements. Regular reports on the number and types of available workers in key occupations and the current and potential

¹ Federal Security Agency. Social Security Board. Press release, Washington, October 28, 1940

labor requirements of employers in defense industries are now being obtained from the State agencies by the United States Employment Service.

In announcing the new procedure to the affiliated State employment services, the Board stated that this machinery was established in order that the United States Employment Service and the State agencies might promote an orderly and planned interstate clearance of labor in accordance with the responsibility placed upon them by the National Defense Advisory Commission. The Commission's labor-supply program aims to prevent unnecessary migration of workers with resultant dislocation of the labor market and of productive activity. Special emphasis has been placed on filling jobs with available labor from the local community wherever possible. To this end the policy of the Commission, in connection with the award of contracts for production of defense material, is to urge employers not to recruit labor outside their locality until the local State employment office has had an opportunity to meet their requirements within the community or through clearance with other employment offices.

In order to carry out this program, the Bureau of Employment Security of the Social Security Board (of which the United States Employment Service is a part) has for the past few months been securing from the State employment services comprehensive and detailed labor-market reports. These reports show the number and type of key workers in each area who are registered with State employment services as available for employment in defense industries. Other information, obtained by direct canvass of about 20,000 employers in defense industries, covers each employer's current labor needs and his requirements for the next 60 days. This material indicates the type and number of workers needed and the period of time for which they are expected to be employed. In addition, the United States Employment Service will have advance information as to potential labor shortages in any area or occupation through reports on the kind of jobs which State agencies have had difficulty in filling locally.

Each of the regional clearance offices will have this information at its disposal. It will, therefore, be in a position to speed up the recruiting of defense workers and at the same time to make certain that workers who are, or will soon be, needed locally for defense work in a given area, are not transferred outside of the locality.

The 13 regional clearance offices established by the United States Employment Service will be situated in Boston, New York City, Philadelphia, District of Columbia, Cleveland, Chicago, Birmingham, Minneapolis, Kansas City, San Francisco, Seattle, Denver, and Austin (Tex.).

Foreign Wartime Activities

CANADIAN WARTIME ACTIVITIES

THE important part Canada is taking in the present struggle of the British Empire is revealed in the growing wartime activities of the Dominion. Some of the latest developments are here reviewed.¹

Rise in Volume of Employment

Industrial employment in Canada showed a very rapid expansion at the beginning of September 1940, according to reports tabulated by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. The number of persons added to the staffs of the establishments covered was substantially larger than in any other September during the 2 decades in which monthly employment surveys have been made. The index (1926 average=100) advanced from 127.9 on August 1, 1940, to 131.6 on the first of the following month. The highest index for September since 1920 was 126.8 in 1929, while the September 1, 1939, figure was 119.6.

Construction and Housing

Considerable attention is being given to housing in connection with war measures. Although in recent months activity in construction has shown substantial gains, and the dollar value of contract awards for the first 9 months in 1940 was 100 million above the same period in the preceding year, the expansion has been in large part in the building of industrial plants, airdromes and barracks, and grain-storage facilities. Even in localities in which large additions to the population have been made on account of war industries, little or no increase was reported for residential building. Many complaints have been submitted regarding higher rentals, and, as noted in the Monthly Labor Review, November 1940, a rentals administrator has been appointed, under the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, who is empowered to fix maximum rentals and adjust complaints.

Government-aided building is being strongly advocated to relieve the shortage in housing, as private enterprise seems hesitant in the matter of erecting homes in war-boom towns.

¹ Data are from U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, *Foreign Commerce Weekly* (Washington), October 26, 1940; *Canadian Labor Gazette* (Ottawa), October 1940; and *Industrial Canada* (Toronto), October 1940. (For earlier measures, see preceding issues of the Monthly Labor Review.)

War Contracts

According to the Dominion Department of Munitions and Supply, the contracts placed for the Canadian Government up to the middle of September aggregated \$325,000,000² and munition orders let by the Government of the United Kingdom totaled \$100,000,000 more. A report of October 15, 1940, by the American commercial attaché at Ottawa, states that "latest additions to the Government-owned plant construction program include a \$6,000,000 magnesium plant, another shell-filling plant costing about \$8,000,000, and plans for doubling the capacity of the recently announced ammonium nitrate enterprise in Alberta, increasing the capital cost of that project to \$15,000,000."

The Skilled-Labor Problem

A skilled-labor shortage is becoming evident, and the compulsory military-training scheme now in effect is the subject of some criticism on the ground that it will be a hindrance to the war industries. The Government is taking stock of manpower in an effort to meet the requirements of industry and the army.

On October 3, 1940, the Minister of Labor strongly urged through the Canadian Press that wartime industry discontinue the practice of "enticing" highly skilled employees from the labor forces of plants in which they were already at work. At the same time the Minister indicated that Government action in this matter would not be taken unless his appeal to industrialists failed. He added, however, that many complaints had been made concerning the situation. He felt that labor would "be decent about it" and continue to cooperate with the Government in the war activities. He was of the opinion that labor did not wish to see wages and living costs rise unreasonably, and would not oppose "some control of unbridled competitive bidding for services."

This thing could grow to ridiculous proportions. The demand for skilled labor in Canada today is greater than ever in history. The figure for unemployment in skilled-labor ranks, 5.2 percent, is the lowest on record. It is a big problem to get an adequate supply and the situation is not helped by manufacturers who move it toward chaos by enticing men from their jobs with established employers who have borne the expense of training them.

I do not suggest that the fact that a man had been trained by a firm gave that firm a lien on his services; it is always open to a man to better himself.

The Minister then called attention to the fact that in the United Kingdom, in the emergency of war, labor had consented to legislation

² Average exchange rate of Canadian dollar=about 90 or 91 cents in United States currency.

preventing a man from taking another job without the Minister of Labor's permission. This was also the case in Australia. "In Canada," he said, "it had not come to this point."

Obviously, if there were no regulation of foodstuffs and rents the cost of living would mount.

What we are trying to do is not to regulate wages, nominal wages, but to give real wages. If any regulation were applied to labor alone, we might reasonably expect protests but when regulation is applied to the cost of living, we do not expect them.

Conferences on the skilled and semiskilled labor supply have recently been held under the chairmanship of the Minister of Labor. At these meetings representations have been made by the various Departments interested in the distribution of manpower; namely, National Defense, Munitions and Supply, National War Services, and the National Labor Supply Council. It is expected that a decision on the wartime utilization of skilled labor will be reached.

Seasonal Industries and Military Training

In order that the calling up of men for military training might be effected with the least possible disturbance of war industries, a recent survey was made of occupations in Canada, which are regarded as seasonal in 13 districts which the Department of National War Services designates for registration. The committee reporting on this inquiry designated as seasonal the agricultural, fishing, logging, trapping, shipping, and construction industries, which were found to have a spread of 25 percent or greater fluctuation in employment during the year.

With accurate knowledge of the periods of minimum and maximum activity in these industries, the committee was of the opinion that the Department of National War Services would be able so to time its call on the men employed in these seasonal industries as not seriously to disrupt their work.

Organization of Four Divisions in National War Services Department

Four divisions have been established in the Department of National War Services to coordinate the objectives for which it was created. The functions of these divisions are set forth as follows:

Division of Human Resources.—It shall be the duty of this division in conjunction with the Bureau of Statistics to tabulate and compile the information secured as a result of the recent National Registration in Canada and, in conjunction with the Department of Labor, to study and report upon the available supplies of labor in Canada and to study and report upon the demands and needs of industry for labor and in a systematic way to aid in directing those seeking employment to employment by employers and toward training facilities which may be available.

Division of Material Resources.—To conduct such surveys as are necessary to the mobilization of the material resources of the nation, to aid and direct the development thereof, to aid in the coordination of the productive efforts of the industries of the nation, to aid in the production, maintenance, and distribution of the food supplies necessary to the successful prosecution of the war, to study the future industrial development of the nation and to assist with information necessary to the proper location of industries so that the economy of Canada may be more evenly balanced and, generally, to do all these things and such further and other things as the Minister may direct in and towards the support of Canada's war effort.

Division of Voluntary Services.—To administer the War Charities Act, to coordinate, organize, and utilize the voluntary effort of the Canadian people, to organize and assist organizations engaged in supporting the war effort of the nation and to do such further and other things as may be delegated to the said division by the Minister of the said Department.

Division of Publicity.—To direct the activities of the Bureau of Public Information and to carry out such other duties as may be from time to time delegated to it by the Minister.

Appointment of Oils Administrator

By an order in council an Oils Administrator has been appointed in Canada under the Wartime Prices and Trade Board, who is empowered "to organize, conserve, and coordinate the supply of animal and vegetable oils, whether processed, partly processed, or unprocessed, including marine animal oils, materials containing any such oil, and all vitamin extracts and preparations." The immediate chief concern of the new official will be fish oils, especially cod-liver oil. However, his jurisdiction extends to the buying and selling of all animal and vegetable oils; the control of their extracting, processing, and refining, and to the fixing of prices and mark-ups, subject to the Minister's approval. The same order continues the policy, originated in April and extended in June 1940, of conserving the Dominion supply of vitamin oils, by allowing the export of fish oils and fish livers only under the Board's licenses.

Appointment of Machine Tools and Power Controllers

The necessity of conserving and coordinating the machinery and machine-tools supply demanded in the manufacture of munitions of war or supplies in Canada has resulted in the appointment of a Machine-Tools Controller, according to an order in council published in the September 18, 1940, extra of the Canada Gazette. The same issue also carries the announcement of the appointment of a Power Controller "to conserve, coordinate, and regulate the power resources and the power industry of Canada." One of the first acts of the Power Controller was to make recommendation, which has been made effective by an order in council, that all municipalities in Ontario and Quebec which operated on daylight-saving time last summer will do so during the coming months.

Accident-Prevention Work

Since the beginning of the war, the Industrial Accident Prevention Associations of Ontario have been stressing the principle that accident-prevention activities already under way should be increased rather than reduced.

Recognition of this principle is shown in a recent order in council which deals with the avoidance of labor unrest under the existing emergency. The order requires that the present safeguards and regulations to protect the health and safety of workers should be continued and every precaution taken to insure safe and healthful working conditions.

The general manager of the Industrial Accident Prevention Associations, in a current bulletin, urges industrial plant executives in Ontario to appraise the safety programs of their respective establishments by making sure that the questions listed below can be answered in the affirmative:

1. Are your employees physically and temperamentally suited to their jobs?
2. Have you an adequate system of instruction, with special attention to new employees?
3. Have you satisfactory arrangements for the general housekeeping of the plant?
4. Is every effort made to control dust at its source? Are ventilating and exhaust systems provided and, if so, are they kept in their proper condition and functioning as originally designed?
5. Is someone delegated to attend local safety meetings?
6. Are you using the services of the Industrial Accident Prevention Associations and the field men of that organization?

Employment and Labor Conditions

HEALTH AND WELFARE OF MIGRATORY LABOR

ALTHOUGH migratory workers are always on the move and therefore difficult to count, it is estimated that there are at least 4,000,000 such workers in this country, half of whom look to agriculture and half to industry for a living. A report¹ made to the President in July by the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities reviews the problem presented by these transitory workers and their families, and presents recommendations for their care and relief. These workers are among the lowest income groups, without resources to meet their health, educational, and other family needs; and the lack of a settled home generally deprives them even of such public aid as other families may turn to in time of need.

The problem is not new, but has been aggravated in the past 10 years by depression and drought, and during this period the make-up of the migrant army has changed from one mainly recruited from immigrant groups to one made up largely of native-born Americans. A third of the migrant group are children, who suffer most and longest from the hazards of a migrant life since they lack a stable home (with the chance to go to school regularly), decent food and housing, and necessary health and medical care.

The misfortunes of these migrant families affect the communities into which they come and there are few parts of the country which are not influenced by the migratory movement. "More than half of the 48 States are within the constant ebb and flow of these seasonal waves—some as recurrent users of migratory labor, others as constant sources of supply." The movement follows two general patterns—one of a general occupation followed over long distances and across State lines, and the other a "seasonal" shifting, through a variety of jobs, within a relatively limited area. However, the two patterns often cross and mingle, and in addition cannot always be distinguished from another large group composed of those who are moving from one place to settle more or less permanently in another. The "back-to-the-farm" movement of 1931-33 is a case in point. Although shifting jobs or traveling in search of work is not new, modern working

¹ Federal Security Agency, Social Security Bulletin (Washington). September 1940 (pp. 3-15): Migratory labor—A report to the President by the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities.

methods both in industry and agriculture, which require large working forces at particular periods, have emphasized the seasonal swing. When the migratory movement cuts across State lines it makes of these workers "interstate transients" who, by the loss of their legal residence, lose their right to public aid and in most cases to public medical care.

Agricultural Migration

The harvesting, packing, and shipping of farm products is one of the most highly seasonal occupations, since at peak seasons a labor force many times larger than that regularly employed is required. In handling perishable crops, such as lettuce, strawberries, tomatoes, and peaches, the need for extra labor is immediate and pressing. For example, fewer than 500 full-time hired workers were employed in the Yakima Valley in Washington in one December, while more than 32,000 were needed in September. The peak demand for labor is six times that of the slack demand in Arizona, and about four times that in California. As a result of this extreme seasonal expansion a number of seasonal migration routes have gradually developed.

Fruit, truck, and berry migrations follow the Atlantic as well as the Pacific coast, carrying workers through successive crops. The wheat migration moves with the ripening grain, from Texas and Oklahoma to the Dakotas and Canada. The cotton migration, especially in Texas, Arizona, and California, is also mainly in line with the successive harvestings of a single crop from place to place. But those who follow this line also look for additional employment in the citrus-fruit and truck-garden sections of all three States. In sugar beets, the movement is largely to the beet fields from more or less distant homes, and back again.

Arrival at the working place does not always mean a job, however, since too many may already have arrived, a frost may have killed the crop, or a fall in price may have destroyed the opportunity to work.

The median annual gross earnings of migratory workers in 1936 and 1937 ranged from \$154 to \$574, according to various studies, and these figures represent only those workers who were successful in finding the average amount of employment.

As a result of their low earnings and wandering mode of life, these families probably have the worst living conditions of any group in the United States, since they have no homes, few possessions, and their children have no chance for education, adequate medical care, or normal home and community life. Malnutrition and sickness are common among both adults and children, and although they are younger than the settled population and so are relatively free from chronic disease, they suffer from about 74 percent more disabling illnesses.

Industrial Migration

Industrial migrants lack the "visibility" of agricultural migrants, since they use the ordinary means of transportation, but the two

groups are equally numerous and widespread. Between 1 and 2 millions of these workers cross State lines each year for reasons of employment. If it were possible to measure interstate movement for reasons of unemployment, the figure would be still higher. While industrial migration represents in part a redistribution of population as economic opportunity expands or contracts, it is also the result of normal variations in the seasonal demands of industry and corresponding adjustments in the industrial labor market. When these workers are in need of public assistance they face the same obstacles in securing it as do the agricultural migrants, since they are just as likely to have forfeited their legal residences. The records of the Federal transient program from 1933 through 1935 show that about 80 percent of the single individuals and 70 percent of the family groups assisted in that period were from towns and cities with a population of 2,500 or more. These transient relief centers were in urban centers and thus were more accessible to industrial migrants, but it is stated that the important fact is that of the many migratory workers and families who are in need, probably as many are in the urban-industrial migrants group as in the rural-agricultural group. Although the situation of these industrial migrants is less spectacular than that of the agricultural migrants, the need is no less because it remains inconspicuous.

Recommendations of Committee

The migration problem involves the immediate problem of providing (1) more effective aid for migrants to meet emergency situations in which economic pressure has resulted in the exhaustion of the resources of individuals and families and (2) a long-range approach to minimize inequalities of opportunity as between the several parts of the country and to create such safeguards as are possible against the hazards of drought, technological change, cyclical unemployment, and other changing factors in our complex economy. The report, however, is directed toward immediate and urgently needed remedies for present conditions among migratory workers. The following policies are recommended by the Committee for consideration:

Information and public interest.—To promote public understanding and provide detailed information as a background for practical action, factual data from Federal and State agencies should be gathered and analyzed as rapidly as possible. A series of regional conferences of State and Federal officials should be held, and local interest and activities stimulated.

Education and welfare.—Communities with large migrant groups should be aided in extending educational, recreational, and welfare services to migrants on the same basis as those provided for residents. Federal aid for such welfare services should be contingent upon the maintenance of equitable service to both groups.

Living conditions and housing.—The Farm Security Administration's camps for migratory agricultural workers should be continued and multiplied. Per-

manent labor homes in greater numbers should be provided, and garden homesteads should be made available by the Federal Government, looking to the settlement of migratory farm workers on the land.

Health and medical care.—In addition to the health and medical services furnished by the Farm Security Administration as a part of its program listed in the preceding paragraph, Federal funds should be made available to the States to be used, together with State funds, in providing health and medical services—both preventive and therapeutic—for migrants. Federal aid should be conditioned upon provision for administration by a State agency and upon States meeting, within 3 years, specified Federal requirements covering length of residence within the State.

Employment and working conditions.—(1) Legislation should be passed empowering the Federal Government to regulate interstate labor contractors.

(2) Interstate transportation of workers by truck should be regulated by the Interstate Commerce Commission and a cooperative enforcement program should be worked out among the Commission and other Government agencies concerned.

(3) The farm placement service should be extended and strengthened as rapidly as possible in the interest of both seasonal employers and migratory workers. Federal funds for this purpose should be made available.

(4) Migratory workers should continue to have the protection of the Fair Labor Standards Act wherever it is now applicable to them. If any changes in this law are considered, they should be in the direction of extending—rather than contracting—its coverage.

(5) Children of migratory workers should be protected from employment too young, and after they reach working years they should have the same safeguards as youthful workers in full-time industrial employment. The full support of public opinion and community services is necessary to make these protections effective.

(6) The protection of the social-security programs should be extended to migratory workers: In public assistance, by uniform and less restrictive standards of State residence; in the insurance programs—old-age and survivors insurance and unemployment compensation—by extension of coverage to agricultural wage earners.

Relief for migrants and their families.—To meet immediate emergency situations, appropriate Federal programs such as the Work Projects Administration and Farm Security Administration should be financed and directed toward furnishing more effective aid to migratory workers. To provide for a continuing program of aid for this and other groups, a general relief program should be established on a Federal-State basis, Federal funds being made on a "variable-grants" basis under administrative provisions similar to those provided in the public assistance programs under the Social Security Act and with added safeguards to prevent discrimination against migratory workers.

The suggestions are premised upon closer working relationships and better coordination among Federal and State agencies with responsibilities in the several fields involved.

In making these suggestions, the Committee recognizes that no public service or protection is a substitute for adequate job opportunities. Although it believes the steps indicated are urgently needed, it urges also that continued study and effort be devoted to meeting the basic economic problems in which these and other immediate needs are rooted.

UNEMPLOYMENT IN CINCINNATI, MAY 1940

STATISTICS covering employment and unemployment in Cincinnati have been obtained since 1929 by the Board of Education in connection with the regular school censuses, with the exception of the year 1935 when a special census was taken. However, in that year there was enough similarity, in the questions asked, to be comparable with other years.

The report¹ for May 1940 was based on 171,771 individuals covered by the interviews—a number which is not much less than the entire “employable” population of the city. According to the report, approximately 5,600 persons who were unemployed in May 1939 had secured jobs by May 1940, while over the 2-year period from May 1938 to May 1940, nearly 14,000 of those out of work on the earlier date had been placed in employment. In May 1940, 13.31 percent of the employable persons in Cincinnati were unemployed, as compared with 16.08 percent in May 1939 and 30.43 percent in May 1933, which latter year represented the peak of unemployment during the 12-year period. The number of part-time workers represented 8.05 percent of the employables in May 1940, as compared with 7.04 percent in 1939 and 17.90 percent in 1933.

The percentages of full-time, part-time, and totally unemployed workers are shown for each year from May 1929 to May 1940 in table 1. Full-time employment rose from 51.67 percent in 1933 to 84.44 percent in 1937. As a result of the recession of 1937, however, employment fell to 67.27 percent in 1938, but by May 1940 had risen to 78.64 percent—about 11 percent below the 1929 level.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Employable Workers in Cincinnati, by Employment Status, 1929 to 1940

May—	Percent employed—		Percent unemployed	* May—	Percent employed—		Percent unemployed
	Full time	Part time			Full time	Part time	
1929 ¹	88.56	5.27	5.94	1935 ²	67.80	9.70	22.50
1930.....	81.89	9.83	8.28	1936.....	72.67	6.53	20.80
1931.....	62.83	18.38	18.79	1937.....	84.44	5.20	10.36
1932.....	52.55	19.38	28.07	1938.....	67.27	12.58	20.15
1933.....	51.67	17.90	30.43	1939.....	76.88	7.04	16.08
1934.....	62.58	12.22	25.20	1940.....	78.64	8.05	13.31

¹ 0.27 percent of employables not listed by employment status in the 1929 census.

² The 1935 census was more extensive than that of any other year and was undertaken through the joint efforts of the Cincinnati Board of Education, the Regional Department of Economic Security, and the Works Progress Administration.

Unemployment, by Race

Since 1933 the information collected has been tabulated separately for white and colored employables. In securing the data, enumerators

¹ Cincinnati, City of. Twelfth Annual Employment Census, May 1940. (Mimeographed.)

were instructed not to list family members who were unemployed because of old age, illness, retirement, or mental or physical handicaps. It was regarded as probable, however, that some of the persons listed were actually unemployable, since the question of employability was left to the judgment of the person interviewed rather than to that of the enumerator. Of the 171,771 individuals classified as employable, 153,270 were white and 18,501 colored. Seventy-one workers of other races were not included in the figures. Persons listed as unemployed included all persons who were on WPA, FERA, CWA, or any other work-relief programs which were in operation at the time the censuses were taken.

The percentages of employment and unemployment by race are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Employment and Unemployment in Cincinnati, by Race, 1933 to 1940*

May	White			Colored		
	Percent employed—		Percent un- employed	Percent employed—		Percent un- employed
	Full time	Part time		Full time	Part time	
1933.....	53.97	17.99	28.04	32.83	12.85	54.32
1934.....	65.89	12.92	21.19	32.75	13.85	53.40
1935.....	69.80	12.50	17.80	37.90	11.10	51.00
1936.....	75.91	6.57	17.52	44.49	6.06	49.45
1937.....	87.09	4.91	8.00	55.69	8.34	35.97
1938.....	70.87	12.78	16.35	36.42	10.89	52.69
1939.....	80.16	7.05	12.79	47.81	6.94	45.25
1940.....	81.34	7.97	10.69	56.24	8.71	35.05

The figures show a much higher ratio of unemployment among colored than among white employables. In May 1933, 54.32 percent of the Negro workers were totally unemployed, as compared with 28.04 percent of the white, while in May 1940 only 10.69 percent of the white workers, but 35.05 percent of the colored, were without employment. The percentage of unemployed colored workers in May 1940 is thus shown to be higher than the percentage of unemployed white workers at the depth of the depression.

Estimated Trend of Employment

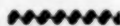
For purposes of comparison, it was assumed in estimating the number of unemployed persons at the time each census was taken that the employable population remained the same from year to year. This assumption was criticized on the ground that it did not take into account increases in the population of Cincinnati after the 1930 Federal census. Preliminary figures for the 1940 census, however, indicate that the change over the 10-year period has been less than one-half of 1 percent. Because of this slight change, therefore, the number of persons employed full time and part time, and the number

of unemployed persons, have been computed by applying the percentages of employment and unemployment shown by the annual censuses against the 1930 Federal census figures, which reported 203,030 persons as having gainful occupations.

On the same base, the figures for May 1940 for Hamilton County, in which Cincinnati is situated, would be: Employed full time, 202,359; employed part time, 20,714; unemployed, 34,250.

TABLE 3.—*Employment and Unemployment in Cincinnati, by Years, 1931 to 1940*

May—	Number employed—		Number unemployed	May—	Number employed—		Number unemployed
	Full time	Part time			Full time	Part time	
1931.....	127,564	37,317	38,149	1936.....	147,542	13,258	42,230
1932.....	106,692	39,347	56,991	1937.....	171,438	10,558	21,034
1933.....	104,906	36,342	61,782	1938.....	136,578	25,541	40,911
1934.....	127,056	24,810	51,164	1939.....	156,094	14,300	32,636
1935.....	137,654	19,694	45,682	1940.....	159,663	16,344	27,023



POPULATION CLASSES IN THE SOVIET UNION, 1939¹

IN THE 1939 census of the Soviet Union, the population is reported according to principal employment groups, each group including not only the persons actually employed but also those in the families of such persons. No separation is made by sex. According to the distribution, as given in the following table, the farm population constituted 46.39 percent of the total.

Population Distribution in the Soviet Union, 1939, by Class

Class	Number	Percent of total population
Peasants.....	78,634,438	46.39
Employed by large-scale State farms (<i>Kolkhozniks</i>).....	75,616,388	44.61
Working on individual small State farms.....	3,018,050	1.78
Industrial wage earners.....	54,566,283	32.19
Salaried employees, Government administrative officials, etc., in industry, trade, agriculture, and liberal professions—"intelligentsia".....	20,738,484	17.54
Craftsmen, members of artels (cooperatives).....	3,888,434	2.29
Craftsmen, independent.....	1,396,203	.82
Persons not working.....	60,006	.04
Unclassified.....	1,235,279	.73
Total.....	169,519,127	100.00

¹ Data are based upon the 1939 population census in the Soviet Union, as reported in the *Planovoe Khozyaystvo*, U. S. S. R., Moscow, No. 5, 1940, p. 20; they relate only to the former territory of the Soviet Union without the newly annexed States and Territories (the eastern half of Poland, part of Finland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and part of Rumania—the Provinces of Bessarabia and Bukovina).

BUILDING DEPRESSION IN SWEDEN ¹

SWEDISH official statistics indicate that the number of building permits applied for and granted during the first 6 months of 1940 for residential projects totaled only approximately 12 percent of the number granted during the same period in 1939, while for commercial building, factories, etc., building permits granted for the first 6 months of 1940 aggregated 23 percent of the total for the same period in 1939. This led to extensive unemployment in the building trades, both directly and indirectly. Only 43 percent of the 60,000 workers belonging to the building-labor unions were employed in ordinary building work in September 1940, while 25 percent were entirely unemployed, 20 percent had been called for military service, and 12 percent were occupied in building bombproof cellars. As, however, the last-mentioned work was almost completed, these 12 percent will likewise soon be unemployed. All persons directly employed in the building industry, including unorganized workers, in 1938 (the last normal year) totaled 140,000. If the same proportion of unemployment prevails in the unorganized group as in the organized, the total unemployment in the building industry in the autumn of 1940 exceeded 60,000 workers.

¹ Report of F. A. M. Alfsen, assistant trade commissioner, Stockholm, Sweden, September 4, 1940.

Women in Industry

ECONOMIC POSITION OF MARRIED BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMEN

MARRIED business and professional women in areas with a population of under 50,000 are, in the main, a product of the depression, according to the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs. Married women are not, on the whole, so well paid as single women. In public employment, for instance, the mode for married women in 1939 was about \$1,300 and for single women about \$1,600 a year. The majority of the married women, however, had not worked for as many years as had the single women, and the better training and longer period of advancement of the single women were apparent in their higher earnings. Both married and single women supported dependents. Less than 1 percent of the married working women in public employment and about 6 percent of those in private employment contributed nothing to the support either of themselves or their dependents. These conclusions, reached by the Federation, are based on the results of a special survey¹ of its members made for the purpose of ascertaining the position of married women in the economic world.

The survey was based on questionnaire returns from a tested representative sample of the 71,000 Federation members, supplemented by material obtained by research committees in 36 States. Questionnaire returns were received from 2,326 members, or 3 percent of the membership as of July 1939. The report of the study states that it does not assume to be representative of all working women, as there are very few industrial women among Federation members. Also, as 76 percent of the members live in cities and towns with a population of under 50,000, and only 3 percent live in cities of over 500,000, it was considered probable that the study is not representative of business and professional women in large cities.

The largest group of married women (68 percent) and also of single women (53 percent) in the Federation was between 30 and 49 years of age. Sixty percent of the married, separated, and divorced women were between 40 and 59 years of age.

¹ National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs, Inc. Position of Married Women in the Economic World. New York, 1819 Broadway, 1940. (Mimeographed.)

Occupations and Earnings

Fifty percent of the members were in seven occupations—school teaching, secretarial work, bookkeeping and accounting, stenography and typing, nursing, clerking in stores, and administrative work. The proportion of the membership in the various occupations was as follows:

	Percent
Clerical work (stenographers, bookkeepers, secretaries, others).....	30.9
Educational work (elementary, high-school, and specialized teachers, school officials).....	19.9
Trade (retail dealers of all kinds, insurance, real estate, others).....	17.7
Medical and health work (doctors, nurses, and others).....	6.8
Professional pursuits not elsewhere classified (social workers, librarians, dietitians and home economists, county agents and farm demonstrators, others).....	6.3
Food, housing, and personal service (beauticians, waitresses, keepers of lodging houses, others).....	5.1
Public service not elsewhere classified.....	2.3
Communications and transportation (telegraph and telephone operators, postal and mail clerks, others).....	1.8
Legal and protective work (lawyers, judges, justices of peace).....	1.7
Manufacturing and mechanical pursuits.....	1.5
Finance (bankers, brokers, money lenders, credit men, bank tellers).....	.9
Arts (designers, photographers, musicians, authors, sculptors).....	.9
Recreational work (theater workers, pleasure-resort owners, others).....	.2
Agriculture and mining (owners of mines, ranches, cattle, others).....	.2
Housewives.....	3.0
Unemployed.....	.8
Total.....	100.0

Thirty-six percent of the married working members, 52 percent of the single members, and 41 percent of those separated, widowed, or divorced were in public employment. Only one-fifth (19.9 percent) of the married women in public employment earned \$2,000 a year or over, as compared with 27 percent of the single women. The mode for married women was about \$1,300 and for single women about \$1,600 a year. Only 5 percent of the married women earned over \$3,000 a year, whereas 9.7 percent of the single women earned that much.

On the whole, the married women were not so well paid as the single women. This may be ascribed, it is said, to the better training and longer period of advancement of the single women, as the majority of the married women who had been married between 10 and 15 years had been working less than 10 years. That women do advance with the number of years worked is indicated by the following table.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Distribution of Business and Professional Women by Annual Income and by Years Worked

Marital status and annual income	Years worked								
	Under 5	5-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	Over 40
Single women:									
Under \$500	29.2	20.8	4.2	12.5	0.0	4.2	12.5	4.2	8.3
\$500-\$999	26.5	26.1	17.4	8.3	7.4	5.7	5.2	1.4	2.6
\$1,000-\$1,499	9.9	18.6	19.9	19.6	13.9	7.9	5.7	2.7	1.7
\$1,500-\$1,999	2.6	8.5	17.0	17.6	24.8	13.1	8.8	4.9	2.3
\$2,000-\$2,999	2.2	7.5	9.3	14.1	22.5	15.0	12.8	13.2	3.5
\$3,000-\$3,999	.0	3.6	5.4	16.1	16.1	16.1	17.9	14.3	10.7
\$4,000 and over	.0	.0	12.5	8.3	16.7	33.3	4.2	8.3	16.7
Married women:									
Under \$500	17.1	17.1	14.3	11.4	8.6	2.9	2.9		
\$500-\$999	13.6	28.2	21.8	21.8	2.7	6.4	1.8	1.8	1.8
\$1,000-\$1,499	6.2	18.7	28.7	18.1	9.4	9.4	3.7	1.9	3.7
\$1,500-\$1,999	1.8	11.8	22.7	24.5	21.8	11.8	3.6	.9	
\$2,000-\$2,999	1.6	8.2	29.5	21.3	18.0	8.2	9.8	3.3	
\$3,000-\$3,999	4.5	22.7	27.2	31.8	9.9	4.5			
\$4,000 and over	13.3	26.7	6.7	20.0	13.3	20.0	8.0		
Widowed, separated, and divorced women:									
Under \$500	16.6	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	16.6	16.6	8.3
\$500-\$999	8.2	17.8	13.7	20.5	17.8	5.5	2.7	1.4	12.3
\$1,000-\$1,499	9.4	19.6	18.1	23.2	14.5	6.5	2.9	1.4	2.9
\$1,500-\$1,999	6.5	14.1	14.1	28.3	13.0	9.8	6.5	4.3	2.2
\$2,000-\$2,999	6.0	4.0	18.0	26.0	20.0	12.0	12.0		2.0
\$3,000-\$3,999	14.3	19.0	23.8	19.0	14.3	4.8			
\$4,000 and over		18.2	27.3	27.3	9.1		9.1	9.1	

The fact that a large proportion of the women who had been married from 10 to 15 years had worked less than 5 years or between 5 and 10 years indicates, the report states, that these women had not worked after their marriage until the depression made it necessary. Only among those who had been married 16 years or more was there any considerable number who had been employed over 10 years, suggesting that these women did not work while their children were small but secured employment when the children were old enough not to need constant care and money was needed for clothing and for education beyond the elementary grades.

Dependents of Working Women

Eleven percent of the married working women supported both children and adults, over 8 percent supported children under 16 years of age, and 29 percent helped to support adults. Fourteen percent of the widowed, divorced, and separated women supported children under 16, and 21 percent contributed to the support of adults. Among the single women, 32.8 percent supported one or more adults besides themselves and 3.5 percent supported children. The proportion of the married women in both public and private employment who aided in the support of dependents, as compared with the single and the widowed, divorced, and separated women, is shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Percent of Women in Public and Private Employment who Supported Dependents, by Marital Condition

Support of dependents	Married		Single		Widowed, divorced, or separated	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
None.....	0.5	6.4	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.8
Self, partially.....	20.5	31.5	1.5	4.2	1.2	2.0
Self, solely; no dependents.....	12.3	16.5	58.1	52.6	40.7	41.5
Self and 1 dependent.....	36.9	24.9	25.7	25.8	31.7	30.5
Self and 2 dependents.....	17.9	10.7	9.1	10.1	16.2	15.9
Self and more than 2 dependents.....	11.8	9.9	5.3	7.0	9.6	9.3

Why Married Women Work

About a third of the married women returning questionnaires in the survey gave their reasons for working. The following were the principal reasons given:

1. Fifty work to support own parents or relatives.
2. Thirty-eight work to improve standard of living or to allow living on a comfortable basis rather than on subsistence basis (includes those buying homes, improving homes, keeping up life insurance, etc.).
3. Closely connected with reason "2" are the reasons for working, as follows:
 - (a) Thirteen work to educate children.
 - (b) Eight work to prepare for security in old age.
 - (c) Six work to get out of debt.
4. Thirty-six work because husband's business failed during depression, or he lost his job, or his employment became irregular.
5. Twenty-six work because husband is ill, incapacitated, or unable to carry on his ordinary business.
6. Seventeen married women indicated they helped their husbands in their businesses.

Social Security

COMPENSATION FOR UNEMPLOYMENT DURING INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

By K. PRIBRAM, *Research and Statistics Division of U. S. Bureau of Employment Security*¹

THE unemployment-compensation laws of all States include, among the types of unemployment which are not to be compensated, unemployment caused by industrial controversies. But the reasons for disqualifying a worker if his unemployment has been caused by a labor dispute differ somewhat from those which have motivated the introduction of other types of disqualification. Disqualification for refusal of suitable work, leaving without good cause, or discharge for misconduct is based on the fact that the worker's unemployment has been caused by his volitional behavior and not by circumstances connected with the conditions of the labor market. The factor of individual behavior does not appear to be of primary importance, however, in the imposition of the labor-dispute disqualification in the various State laws. Under the laws of most States it is at least doubtful whether a worker can obtain relief from this disqualification upon the claim that he did not actively participate in the dispute. Decisions of the State tribunals passing upon such claims express conflicting views on this issue. This is due to the different wording of the disqualification provisions in the several laws as well as to the different interpretations made by the tribunals. (2133 Calif. A.; 2410 Fla. A.; 3865 Pa. A.)²

In addition it is to be noted that under most State laws the disqualification applies also in cases of lock-out, and in such cases the worker's unemployment is due to the employer's decision. Lock-outs are expressly excluded from the concept of "labor dispute" by the law of Kentucky and through implication by the laws of California, Colorado, Utah, Ohio, and the District of Columbia. Thus far, in these States,

¹ Although the author of this article is a member of the staff of the Social Security Board, the article does not necessarily reflect the official views of the Board.

² The decisions cited in this article have been rendered by the appeal tribunals of the State unemployment agencies and, in a limited number of cases, by courts. The citations added in parenthesis refer to the "Benefit Series" of the Unemployment Compensation Interpretation Service, published by the Social Security Board. The last issue of this publication which has been analyzed in preparing the article is No. 7 of Vol. 3 (July 1940). Occasionally also, decisions of the British umpires have been cited. In this case the citations refer to the "General Supplement No. 1" of the "Benefit Series" and are marked by the symbol B. U. Space does not permit a discussion of the procedures adopted by the States in deciding upon disqualification issues.

no particular difficulties appear to have been experienced in differentiating lock-outs from strikes. The meaning of the term "lock-out" has been defined in an Ohio decision as follows: "Lock-out is a cessation of the furnishing of work to employees in an effort to get for the employer more favorable or desirable terms." (3617 Ohio R.)

Among the reasons which have been advanced for including labor disputes among the disqualifications is the fact that payment of benefits to workers involved in a labor dispute would amount to subsidizing one party to the dispute and would thus impair the neutrality of the unemployment-compensation agency. (2243 Mich. A) Far greater weight, however, is likely to be attributed to the fact that, under present conditions, actuarial difficulties would present serious obstacles to any attempt to include unemployment caused by labor disputes among compensable risks. In fact, in no State have the costs involved in compensating for unemployment of this type been taken into account in determining the probable expenditures from the funds. This was noted in a decision rendered by the West Virginia Board of Review in connection with the so-called "Appalachian Controversy." Such a dispute as this, it was said, involving more than 100,000 workers, would in 8 weeks of benefit exhaust the West Virginia Unemployment Trust Fund at its highest figure. (3380 W. Va. R.) Inclusion of unemployment caused by labor disputes among the risks covered by unemployment compensation would no doubt require considerable and far-reaching modifications of the existing systems.³

Meaning of Term, "Labor Dispute"

For actuarial reasons the tribunals might find it expedient to adopt a rather broad definition in interpreting the meaning of the term "labor dispute" as used in the disqualification provisions. This definition might possibly include even political strikes and similar controversies resulting in stoppages of work through concerted action of the workers. Such a definition would have much to recommend itself, on the ground that the concept of labor dispute plays a part not only in connection with disqualification provisions but also in connection with the labor-standards provisions of the unemployment-compensation laws. According to the latter provisions new work when offered is declared "unsuitable" if the position offered is vacant as a direct result of a strike, lock-out, or other labor dispute. It is obviously desirable to interpret the term "labor dispute" in such a way that it can meet the purposes of both sets of provisions, since it would hardly be consistent with accepted principles of legal inter-

³ It may be mentioned in this connection that it is highly inappropriate to use the expression "penalty" for denoting the effects of the imposition of the disqualification. The term "penalty" implies a moral judgment. But no such judgment is rendered when it is found that a claimant's unemployment cannot be compensated because it is of a specific type which is not included in the coverage of the compensation system.

pretation to assume that the same term has been used in a different sense in different parts of the same statute. The broader the meaning attached to the term "labor dispute," the better are the workers protected in cases in which a position offered can be held to be vacant because of a labor dispute.⁴ However, thus far the idea seems to have prevailed that the interpretation of the term "labor dispute" for unemployment-compensation purposes may preferably be ruled by definitions which are given in other statutes, particularly in anti-injunction or labor-relations acts. It is commonly held in accordance with a decision rendered by a Wisconsin appeal tribunal (592 Wis. A.) that, although such definitions are not to be regarded as controlling in the interpretation of the unemployment-compensation provisions, they may serve as a guide in such cases.

Hence, in defining the term "labor dispute" for unemployment-compensation purposes the State agencies have quite generally adopted the definitions laid down in the Norris-La Guardia Act (1932), the National Labor Relations Act (1935), and, except for unimportant variations, in the anti-injunction laws of over a dozen States. In these definitions the issues involved in the controversies play an important role. Controversies concerning conditions of work and terms of employment (1851 N. J. D.) or the right of representation or association (3864 Oreg. R.) are considered labor disputes. This concept is broad enough to include controversies hinging on the application of the closed-shop principle (1847 Mass. R.) or on the use of nonunion goods and materials in the employer's establishment (1851 N. J. D., 3619 Wash. R.), differences between employers or workers which result from the unemployment or nonemployment of particular individuals (337 Wis. A.) or form discrimination against certain classes of workers, or controversies between groups or classes of workers in an establishment involving conditions of work or questions of representation (3864 Oreg. R.).

Under most State laws, however, it is a debatable question whether workers are to be disqualified for benefits when they refuse to work under terms which, if accepted, would involve the violation of existing laws or regulations (relating to minimum wages, hours, etc.). It can be argued that such offers are not effective offers of work (2358 BU-444), consequently, benefits were allowed in some cases of this type (1430 R. I. D.; 3113 Ala. R.). Some State laws—Arizona (sec. 54), Montana (sec. 5d), Utah (sec. 5d)—specifically provide for relief from disqualification in such situations. On the other hand,

⁴ It may be mentioned that the adoption of a rather narrow definition of the term "labor dispute" in the Oregon initiative measure passed at a general election (Nov. 8, 1938) led to raising of the question whether this definition was consistent with the labor-standards provisions of the Social Security Act and could, consequently, be used in interpreting these provisions. The labor-standards provisions of the unemployment compensation law of Oregon were subsequently amended so as to make the meaning of the terms used in those provisions conform to their meaning in the Federal act.

it is quite generally held that the merits of the contentions of the parties are not material to the determination of whether a labor dispute exists (591 W. Va. R.; 1847 Mass. R.; 1851 N. J. D.; 2419 Ohio R.); it is even held irrelevant whether the controversy has been caused by a breach of contract on the part of one of the parties (528 Conn. R.; 1968 Conn. R.; 2704 Ind. A.). The Arizona law, however, expressly stipulates that no disqualification shall apply if a dispute is caused by the failure or refusal of an employer to conform to the provisions of an agreement or contract between employer and employee.

In determining the character of the parties involved in the disputes, the decisions do not attach importance to the question whether the disputants stand in the proximate relation of employers and employees. (3619 Wash. A.) Also, disputes between employees and associations acting on behalf of the workers, or between workers' associations, or groups or classes of workers in an establishment (so-called jurisdictional disputes) are considered labor disputes. (330 Oreg. A.; 2043 Wis. A.)

Considerable importance attaches, moreover, to the methods used in enforcing acceptance or fulfillment of demands. Unless attempts were made to enforce demands, no dispute was held to exist, although negotiations may have been going on about conditions of work and terms of employment. (1855 N. Y. R.; 2237 Ala. Ct. D.; 3618 Okla. A.) No labor dispute was held to have been produced by the fact that workers were discharged by the employer because of insistence on their demands (3129 N. C. A.), or that workers left their jobs—without, however, calling a strike—rather than accept a reduced rate (741 N. Y. A.). Similarly, it was held that activities of workers in organizing a union, of itself, did not indicate the existence of a labor dispute. (328 N. Y. A.; 1424 N. Y. R.) On the other hand, the use of methods such as the boycott of an employer's products, accompanied by picketing of his plant, was considered a labor dispute. (197 Oreg. A.) It is also evident that "sit down strikes" are covered by the concept of labor dispute. (590 Pa. A.; 1853 N. J. D.)

The question of whether labor was, in fact, withheld in order to enforce the adoption of a specific collective agreement, was made the object of an almost Nation-wide discussion in connection with a stoppage which occurred in the bituminous-coal fields at the end of April 1939, when negotiations for the renewal of the so-called "Appalachian Agreement" met with serious difficulties and the miners refused to continue work after the expiration of the agreement until such date as a new agreement should be reached. The differences of view which resulted in diametrically opposite decisions on the compensation claims of the workers involved can hardly be explained in terms of differences of the statutory provisions which the State agencies were

called upon to apply. This is particularly evidenced by the fact that in a number of States previous rulings were reversed by the decisions of higher tribunals or of courts.

In the decisions in which the workers were denied benefits it was commonly argued that the nature of a dispute implies the insistence by one party on acceptance or abrogation of some condition or group of conditions and resistance to this action by the other party. The workers were held to have gone out on an "undeclared" strike in pursuance of a traditional policy by terms of which continuation of work depended upon the existence of a collective agreement. When the dispute started, it was argued, the situation was that the workers were refusing to work unless the old contract was renewed on a temporary or short-time basis, and the operators were refusing to resume operations unless the old contract was extended for the regular 2-year period. In some decisions of this type, picketing to prevent the mines from opening was mentioned as indicating the existence of a labor dispute.

Decisions influenced by this line of reasoning were rendered in the Appalachian area in Michigan, Tennessee (Board of Review),⁵ Kentucky (1970 Ky. D.),⁵ Virginia (2422 Va. R.),⁶ and West Virginia (3132 W. Va., 3380 W. Va. R.);⁶ and in the non-Appalachian area in Alabama⁷ (2131 Ala. R.), Colorado, Wyoming, Utah (2250 Utah R.),⁸ Indiana (2135 Ind. A.), and Missouri. In some of these decisions no definite and direct answer was given to the question of whether the workers were, in fact, engaged on a strike. The Tennessee tribunal expressed the opinion that neither a strike nor a lock-out existed but rather a labor dispute of a particular type, a "cessation of work" due to the expiration of the Appalachian Agreement. (2042 Tenn. R.)

On the other hand, in the decisions in which the miners affected by the stoppage were granted benefits, main emphasis was laid on the fact that, following custom and tradition, operations had been suspended after the expiration of the old contract pending negotiations incidental to the establishment of a new agreement. During that period, it was argued, there was no basis for the terms under which the workers could be employed, and, consequently, there was no "suitable work offered or available for them." Decisions to this effect were rendered in the Appalachian States of Pennsylvania, Tennessee

⁵The Kentucky and Tennessee decisions have been reversed by lower courts and are now pending on further appeal.

⁶The decisions of the Virginia and West Virginia tribunals have been affirmed by lower courts and are now pending on appeal.

⁷The Alabama case is pending on appeal. In another Alabama case arising out of the bituminous-coal stoppage (*Fesnell v. Department of Industrial Relations*), a lower court stated that a shut-down caused solely because of lack of contract pending negotiations for a new contract does not of itself constitute a labor dispute where the negotiations are carried on in a businesslike and fair manner, as in the bituminous situation.

⁸The Utah case has been affirmed by the Utah Supreme Court (*Employees of Utah Fuel Co. v. Industrial Commission*).

(Commissioner of Labor), Maryland, Ohio (2420 Ohio R.),⁹ and in the non-Appalachian States of Iowa (2415 Iowa R.)¹⁰ and Kansas. In some States, particularly in Kansas, the attitude of the parties involved in the issue appears to have lent support to the assumption that, pending the conclusion of a new agreement, a stoppage of work was agreed upon by the operators and the workers. In other States (as in Utah and Ohio), the mine operators insisted upon having offered work to their men at the terms incorporated in the previous agreement. But also in the decisions rendered in these States it was argued that the miners did not refuse to work because their demands for additional contract concessions were not granted but because they had no contract under which to work.

The Stoppage Clause

Following the example set by the British Unemployment Insurance Act, the so-called "stoppage clause" was inserted in the disqualification provisions of the "Draft Bill for State Unemployment Compensation" prepared by the Social Security Board in 1937. Hence the clause is found in many State laws which have adopted this pattern.¹¹ In accordance with this clause a worker is to be disqualified "for any week with respect to which the Commissioner finds that his total or partial unemployment is due to a stoppage of work which exists because of a labor dispute at the factory, establishment, or other premises at which he is, or was last employed."

Where the clause applies, the following three questions are relevant in deciding on the disqualification issues: (a) whether a stoppage has occurred; (b) whether the stoppage was due to a labor dispute; and (c) whether the claimant's unemployment was due to that stoppage and not to other circumstances. The disqualification is inapplicable to any week with respect to which either of these questions is answered in the negative.

The stoppage clause has been justified in terms of the principles underlying unemployment compensation. If at an establishment affected by a labor dispute, notwithstanding the dispute and its attendant circumstances, production is going on undisturbed or has been restored to its normal level, it can reasonably be argued that no work is available for a worker who has lost his employment through the dispute and that, consequently, his unemployment is due to lack

⁹ A court decision (*U. S. Coal Co. v. U. C. Board of Review*) is pending on appeal. It may be recalled that the disqualification provision of the Ohio law refers to a "strike."

¹⁰ The decision is pending on appeal to District Court.

¹¹ Originally, there were only 10 State laws which did not contain the clause—those of Alabama, California, District of Columbia, Kentucky, Michigan, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. Because of certain difficulties involved in its interpretation and application, the clause has recently been eliminated from the laws of Florida, Idaho, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Alaska, Louisiana, and Oklahoma. However, in Michigan it has been held that the phrase "labor dispute actively in progress" imports a stoppage of work in the establishment (*Mich. A. B. 1585*).

of work and is therefore compensable. In addition, the stoppage requirement has been adopted on the ground that it furnishes a convenient test for determining the date when the disqualification is to be terminated. On the other hand, there are situations in which the application of the stoppage clause is likely to meet with certain difficulties. This may be shown in discussing the three questions mentioned above:

(a) The answer to the question of whether, in a given case, a "stoppage of work" has occurred depends largely upon the meaning attached to this phrase. In accordance with the views expressed by the British umpire and the tribunals of other State agencies, this meaning has been well defined in a definition suggested in a decision of the Missouri Appeal Tribunal. By "stoppage of work" it is stated, is meant cessation of the work which causes a distinct check in the production in the establishment owing to vacancies created by the strike. It does not mean a stoppage of work as it pertains to any individual employed there.¹² However, "stoppage of work" does not mean that the plant or establishment of the employer need be shut down completely. The law does not state to what degree this stoppage must exist; therefore, any substantial stoppage must be considered sufficient to create the condition contemplated in the Act. (3859 Mo. A.)

No stoppage of work is commonly held to exist, therefore, when all places have been filled which are necessary to carry on the normal activities of the establishment or the plant. (2894 Conn. R.; 2898 N. Dak. A.; 3124 Mo. R.; 3859 Mo. R.; 3613 N. J. D.; 3378 N. C. A.) If a certain interruption of business has occurred, however, the question may arise whether the stoppage was "substantial" or "appreciable." Such an appreciable stoppage was held to exist when the decrease in production amounted to 20 percent (1850 N. J. D.); or when production was continued only under temporary arrangements which would be inadequate under normal conditions (330 Oreg. A.; 1854 N. J. D.).

(b) In a number of cases the question has been raised whether and to what an extent, in fact, the stoppage was due to the labor dispute and not rather to other causes, such as slackness of business, or temporary closing down of the plant for repair purposes. (2702 Ga. A.; 2138 Ind. A.) Quite generally it has been held that no disqualification applies when employment has ceased to be available for the claimants at the plant where the stoppage occurred. (3134 W. Va. A.; 3615 N. J. D.) In a New Jersey decision it was pointed out, in accordance with the view of the British umpire, that a stoppage of work which was due originally to a labor dispute might cease to be cause for dis-

¹² In two Oregon decisions (see 334 Oreg. A.) the term "stoppage" had been interpreted to refer to the action of individual claimants instead of to the entire establishment or a department thereof. This interpretation was later rejected in a memorandum decision of the Circuit Court to which the cases were referred on appeal. (870 Oreg. Ct.)

qualification if a new cause intervened, such as a general depression in the trade, difficulty experienced by the employer in recovering trade lost during a dispute, lack of raw material because of previous cancellation of contracts, and the like. (1849 N. J. D.) Decisions based on similar reasoning have frequently been rendered. (852 Conn. R.; 598 Oreg. A.; 685 N. C. R.; 1846 Ind. A.; 3610 Mo. D.) The question of whether a stoppage caused by a labor dispute may also continue to exist after the labor dispute has been terminated has not yet been discussed in American decisions.

(c) Finally, it may be doubtful in specific cases whether a causal relationship exists between a stoppage caused by a labor dispute and the claimant's unemployment. Thus in an Oregon case it was decided that, although prior to a dispute a number of workers had been laid off for an indefinite period because of "lack of orders," a subsequent stoppage caused by the dispute had resulted in the unemployment of such workers as could have returned to work, in accordance with the seniority rule, upon the reopening of the mill. (588 Oreg. A.) Similarly, in case of a worker laid off for lack of work, who is given a definite date for return, if a strike occurs subsequently and the strike period coincides with or includes within its limits the date of definite return, the unemployment has been held to be due to the strike, but only from the day on which claimant was scheduled to return to work. (3376 N. J. D.; 1074 N. Y. R.)¹³ However, if a worker has been laid off indefinitely prior to the stoppage and it does not appear that he would have been recalled to work during the period of the stoppage, benefits have been allowed on the ground that his unemployment was not attributable to the stoppage. (3131 Okla. A.; 3608 Mo. D.; 3858 Ga. A.; 2702 Ga. A.; see also *Chrysler Corp. v. Smith*, Mich. Circ. Ct., Ingham County, June 1940.)

Disqualification Directly Related to the Labor Dispute

Under the State laws which do not contain the stoppage clause the disqualification applies, as a rule, when a direct causal relationship is found to obtain between the worker's unemployment and a labor dispute which exists or "is in active progress" at the establishment where he was last employed. It may be mentioned that the laws of New York and Rhode Island use the term "industrial controversy" instead of "labor dispute in active progress" and that in these two States the disqualification provisions are very strict—8 and 10 weeks of "extended waiting period" respectively. Under such laws the causal relation between the dispute and claimant's unemployment may terminate long before the termination of the dispute or before the end of the flat disqualification period, and yet the disqualification continues. (681 N. Y. A.; 682 N. Y. A.)

¹³ This view is also supported by *In re Sadowski*, 257 App. Div. 529, 13 N. Y. S. (2d) 553.

In interpreting provisions which directly relate the disqualification to the labor dispute, some difficulties have arisen in deciding upon the period during which the dispute exists or, as some laws put it, is "in active progress" or continues. These difficulties apply only exceptionally to the date on which the dispute begins. In a Wisconsin case a distinction was drawn between procedures which were of a bargaining character (demand, refusal, counterproposal, and the like) and "overt action" which constituted the labor dispute. (198 Wis. R.) However, it is less easy to establish objective standards as to the period during which the dispute exists, is in active progress, or continues. A very broad interpretation was adopted in a number of Wisconsin appeal decisions in which the dispute was considered to be in active progress until the differences which had caused it were formally settled. Hence, for prolonged periods, workers were disqualified who refused to join a union and were prevented from working by their co-workers although the employers were willing to reemploy them at any time. (10 Wis. A.; 337 Wis. A.; 592 Wis. A.) A similar view was adopted in other Wisconsin cases and a New York case in which the picket lines had been discontinued but no agreements had been reached between the parties to the dispute. (338 Wis. A.; 3862 N. Y. A.) In a recent Oregon case a labor dispute was held to be in active progress when workers had been discharged by the employer at the request of a rival union, but the union of the discharged workers still contended that it was the proper bargaining agent for the plant and attempted to secure reemployment of its members at the plant by filing charges with the National Labor Relations Board. (3864 Oreg. R.)

However, in other decisions, main emphasis was laid on the use of methods appropriate for enforcing the demands, whereas no significance was attached to the question of whether a formal settlement had been reached. Thus, in two California cases, withdrawal of the picket line was held to indicate that the efforts to continue the dispute had lapsed and that the latter was no longer in active progress. (2239 Calif. A.; 2240 Calif. A.) In New York decisions it has been repeatedly held that when a dispute terminates before the expiration of the extended waiting period, through closing of the employers' establishment and the like, the extended waiting period closes and that claimant is subject thereafter only to the normal waiting period, not exceeding, however, a continued total of 10 weeks; in such cases the flat waiting period of 10 weeks is not strictly applied. (1426 N. Y. A.; 2038 N. Y. A.; 2708 N. Y. A.)

In specific cases doubts may also arise as to the existence of a causal relationship between the labor dispute and the claimant's unemployment. No disqualification is to be imposed when it can be shown that the worker's unemployment is due to causes other than the dispute.

particularly to lack of work. (585 N. Y. A.; 865 N. Y. A.; 3130 Ohio A.; 3131 Okla. A.; 2035 Calif. R.; 3870 Calif. R.; 3856 Calif. A.) In such cases it has frequently been considered irrelevant that the claimant participated in picketing. (862 N. Y. A.; 1064 Calif. A.; 1417 Calif. A.; 1700 Calif. R.; 3608 Mo. D.) Generally the principle has been recognized that no causal relation exists between a dispute and a worker's unemployment when the employer-employee relationship had been definitely terminated prior to the beginning of the dispute. (1561 N. Y. A.; 1416 Calif. A.; 2424 Wis. A.; 2897 N. Dak. A.) The application of this principle does not seem to have been affected by the fact that the discharge had been motivated by the worker's union activities. (328 N. Y. R.; 1424 N. Y. R.; 2411 Fla. A.) However it has been held repeatedly that where, immediately following the discharge of a worker, other workers went on strike for the purpose of compelling his reinstatement, the worker was himself thereby involved in the dispute and was subject to disqualification. (683 N. Y. A.; 1853 N. J. D.) It is doubtful whether, in cases in which the discharge of the claimants has been instrumental in bringing about the dispute, a causal relationship can be held to exist between the controversy and their unemployment. In fact, in other decisions dealing with cases of the same type, such causal relationship was not found to obtain and benefits were allowed accordingly. (1846 Ind. A.; 2036 Ind. A.; 2,424 Wis. A.)

In cases in which workers were intermittently employed or had left the work temporarily, prior to the dispute, for reasons not connected with the dispute, the imposition of the disqualification has been determined mainly by the answer to the question of whether the claimants were continuously attached to the establishment. If this was the case and the claimants were prevented by a dispute from returning to work, the disqualification has been held to be applicable. (743 N. Y. A.; 338 Wis. A.; 1738 Calif. A.; 1075 N. Y. R.; 1078 N. Y. R.)¹⁴ However, when the employment relation was held to have been severed prior to the beginning of the dispute, claimants have not been disqualified even if, in the absence of the dispute, they would again have obtained work at the establishment. In such cases the controversy was considered, at most, as a condition which prevented them from obtaining reemployment as distinct from the direct cause of their unemployment. (584 N. Y. A.; 3123 Minn. A.)

It may be mentioned that under a contract at will, the existence of an employment relation is frequently difficult to determine in case of an indefinite lay-off. In view of this fact the British umpire has laid down the so-called "12-day rule," according to which a worker suspended for an indefinite period prior to the beginning of the dispute is presumed to have been finally discharged if 12 or more working days

¹⁴ The decision in 1078 N. Y. R. was affirmed in *In re Pillig* (App. Div.), 13 N. Y. S. (2d) 555.

have elapsed between the date of his suspension and the beginning of the controversy. (18901/31 BU 571.) In a New York decision, it was stated that there must be some tangible evidence of a complete severance of the relationship of employer and employee if the causal relation between the dispute and the worker's unemployment is to be removed. (1074 N. Y. R.) Some other decisions have dealt with cases in which workers were discharged while the labor dispute was still in progress. In several cases the disqualification has been held not to be applicable after the day of the discharge. (851 Calif. R.; 3378 N. C. A.; 3855 Calif. A.; 2248 Okla. A.)

Establishment at Which Worker Was Last Employed

In the disqualification provisions of most States, the direct or indirect relationship between a labor dispute and a worker's unemployment is defined in terms of the worker's last employment.¹⁵ Unless the dispute or the stoppage arising from the dispute has occurred at the establishment where the worker was last employed, the disqualification does not apply. Two sets of questions have arisen in this connection: (a) How to define the term "establishment," and (b) how to determine the establishment at which the worker was "last employed."

(a) As a rule, all plants and premises operated by an employer are, to a large extent, integrated commercially, financially, and frequently even technically. But their mutual independence may be so far preserved that the workers of some premises may directly participate in the dispute, while the workers of others may be only indirectly affected. In deciding upon questions of this kind, primary emphasis seems to attach to physical aspects and the nature of the work performed at the different premises. In a New Jersey case, in which an interstate trucking company operated establishments in New Jersey and Rhode Island, each of these terminals was regarded as a separate establishment. (1972 N. J. D.) On the other hand, in a Wisconsin case, two plants of an automobile manufacturer, which were 10 miles apart, were held to constitute a single establishment "in view of their physical proximity, functional integrality, and general unity." (2425 Wis. A.) In another Wisconsin decision some general principles were discussed for determining whether or not different plants of the same employer constitute a "single establishment." It was held that "mere geographic separation of plants is not in and of itself controlling, but rather is to be considered a factor bearing on functional integration and to be given weight directly in proportion to the distance between plants." In addition,

¹⁵ Some State laws (Kentucky, Ohio, Wisconsin, New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island) do not use the phrase "was last employed" but the phrase "(is or) was employed."

it was argued that in no event is the term "single establishment" to be deemed to embrace the plants of different employer entities, regardless of functional integration and regardless of any degree of control of the plant of one entity, exercised by means of stock ownership or otherwise. (1250 Wis. A.)

Recently two court decisions have been rendered on the question of whether the term "establishment," as used in the disqualification provisions, is to be limited to the particular place of business or plant or whether it embraces all plants or places of business of the employing unit which are connected with each other by functional interdependence and synchronization. The view that each plant should be considered a separate establishment was sustained by a decision of a Michigan court¹⁶ but rejected by a decision of a Wisconsin court.¹⁷

Some other cases may be mentioned in which the disqualification was objected to on the ground that the claimants were employed by employers other than those in whose establishments the labor disputes occurred. Thus, in a New York case it was decided that a "contracting house," although working exclusively for a single manufacturer, was an independent establishment. (1703 N. Y. A.) In another case the business of a subcontractor, operated in the premises of a corporation, was held to be a separate establishment and no disqualification was applied, although the subcontractor and his men had participated in a strike directed against the corporation. (1072 N. Y. A.) A similar decision dealt with truck drivers working for a delivery concern. (1077 N. Y. R.)

(b) Questions which involve the meaning of the phrase "last employed" are likely to arise in cases in which claimants who have lost their employment in connection with a labor dispute have secured some work at other premises but lost it because of a nondisqualifying cause. Acceptance of the second employment results in interrupting the causal relationship between the worker's unemployment and the labor dispute—or the stoppage caused by a labor dispute—at the plant where he was previously employed. However it has been held that this new employment must be bona fide employment undertaken in good faith and not merely for the purpose of evading the disqualification. (460 Oreg. A.; 1423 N. Y. A.; 2412 Ind. A.; 2037 Mo. A.; 3607 Minn. A.; 2863 Ohio A.)¹⁸ The determining factor whether or not the employment was genuine has been, not the period for which the claimant was employed (461 Oreg. A.), but rather other circumstances connected with the second employer and the

¹⁶ *Chrysler Corporation v. Smith*, Circuit Court, Ingham County, Mich., June 1940.

¹⁷ *Spielman v. Industrial Commission*, Circuit Court, Dane County, Wis., May 1940.

¹⁸ The question of what constitutes "bona fide" employment in such cases has been discussed in a recent Washington court decision (*In re Eligibility of Persons Employed at St. Paul and Tacoma Lumber Co.* Superior Court, Pierce County, April 1940).

nature of the employment (3126 N. Y.). However, although claimants had secured subsequent bona fide employment, it has been argued occasionally that the former employer-employee relationship had never been terminated when the claimant had picketed his former employer's premises after his spell of employment (686 Oreg. A.) or when he had retained an active interest in the negotiations carried on between the officials of his union and the former employer (3602 Calif. A.).

Relief From the Disqualification

Stoppages caused by labor disputes are frequently instrumental in causing unemployment of workers who have no concern nor interest in the dispute. Hence the large majority of State laws contain provisions designed to give relief from the disqualification to any claimant if it appears that as an individual he was not participating in, financing, nor directly interested in the dispute, nor indirectly interested in it through actions of individuals belonging to the grade or class of which he was a member. Also, under most State laws a second type of relief is provided for workers employed in separate departments other than those in which the dispute is going on, even though on the same premises, provided that the work of these departments is commonly conducted as a separate business on separate premises.¹⁹

The intentions underlying the introduction of exceptions of this kind have been set forth in a British umpire's decision (8344 Bu-806); it appears to be justifiable to refer to this interpretation, since the exceptions provided for in the American statutes are either almost identical with the corresponding exceptions of the British act or strongly influenced by this pattern. The British umpire pointed out that it was the intention of the legislation to give relief to those persons who are deprived of work by a dispute in which they have no concern nor interest and to no others. But, thus the statement continues, "a person who is not directly interested in a dispute may very well have an interest not very remote." For instance, if a dispute arises from a demand by a craft union for increased wages to be paid to its members, the workers who are directly interested are the members of the union, but other men following the same craft or doing the same kind of work for the same employer would probably get the benefit of any increase granted to the members of the union, and they would get it because they and the disputants were all ordinarily engaged on the same terms to do the same kind of work, and in that sense belonged to

¹⁹ Only in nine States no such exceptions are provided for; these States are Alabama, California, Delaware, District of Columbia, Kentucky, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin. However, in a ruling issued May 4, 1938, by the Unemployment Reserves Commission of California, the provision of 56 (a) of the California act, "If he left his work because of a trade dispute," was interpreted as though the two clauses mentioned above had been explicitly included in the act. The ruling was reproduced in 1063 Calif. A., but has subsequently been rescinded.

the same grade or class of workers. Accordingly, the intention of the provisions under discussion seem to be "to exclude from benefit, in addition to the workers who are directly interested, those who are indirectly interested by reason of the terms and condition of their employment being the same as those of the persons who are directly interested."

The decisions of the American tribunals have been influenced by similar reasoning. Quite commonly no direct interest was assumed to exist when the outcome of the dispute did not affect the hours of work, wages, or other conditions of the work of the claimants (1563 W. Va. A.); if the opposite was the case, the workers were held to be directly interested (1558 Mich. A.; 2139 Iowa A.; 2243 Mich. A.; 2703 Ill. R.; 2707 Mass. A.; 3121 Mich. A.). Direct interest was also held to obtain in jurisdictional controversies in which the issues of the dispute included the right of becoming the bargaining agent for the claimant's occupation. (1856 Oreg. R.; 1848 Mich. A.)

These decisions indicate that a worker may be directly interested in a labor dispute without participating in it; on the other hand he may participate in a labor dispute without being directly interested in it. So-called sympathetic strikes are cases of the latter type. (1851 N. J. D.) In the Michigan statute (sec. 29d) stoppage of work on sympathetic strike is explicitly mentioned among the reasons for disqualification.

However, to act as a picket under the instruction of a union and thus to prolong the stoppage was held not to amount to participation in a dispute. (2249 R. I. Ct. D.; 3608 Mo. D.) A different point of view was adopted in another decision in which the disqualification was imposed on the ground that claimant assisted in picketing. (3606 Minn. A.) Membership in a union involved in a dispute was generally held to be tantamount to participation in the dispute. (1845 Ind. A.; 1973 N. J. D.; 2410 Fla. A.) The question may be raised as to whether this view should apply in cases in which claimant had no opportunity to participate in the union's decision. In a recent decision ²⁰ it was held that mere membership in a labor union does not amount to participation in the dispute. In a specific situation the members of a carpenters' and joiners' union were allowed benefits although they belonged to the Building Trades Council of the locality whose strike committee participated in negotiating the dispute. (583 Conn. R.)

Along with direct interest and participation in a dispute, financing of a dispute is enumerated among the provisos under which no relief

²⁰ *In re Eligibility of Persons Employed at St. Paul and Tacoma Lumber Company*, rendered by the Superior Court, Pierce County, Wash., April 1940.

from the disqualification is applicable. Financial assistance of this type may be given out of funds especially collected for lending support to workers engaged in a dispute (739 Conn. R.), but the most important cases of financing involved here concern situations in which the claimant—or other workers belonging to a group or class of workers of which the claimant is a member—is ordinarily paying dues to a union which is engaged in a dispute or is contributing towards maintaining the existence of striking workers. (3621 W. Va. A.) Only the Michigan act (sec. 29c) and the Florida act (sec. 6d) stipulate that the payment of regular union dues shall not be construed as financing a labor dispute.²¹

The term "grade or class" of workers, as used in the provisions relating to the relief from disqualification, obviously refers in general terms to such categories of workers as might have common interests in labor disputes as far as their terms of employment and conditions of work as concerned; the concept of class is much wider in scope—a class may include a number of grades. Important factors in determining a worker's grade or class are his normal occupation, as distinct from a temporary occupation (3120 Mich. A.) and the conditions and terms of his occupation, as compared to those of other workers. Other factors may include his eligibility for membership in certain unions.

Some decisions may be cited in order to illustrate the meaning attached to the phrase "grade or class." In a West Virginia case it was held that "gang workers" employed in a coal mine were of a different classification from the men working on the conveyor, since they were paid in a different manner and according to a different scale. (1563 W. Va. A.) In another case the employees of a photo-engraving department were held to belong to a grade or class other than the employees of the editorial, advertising, and commercial departments of a newspaper plant. (1702 Minn. A.) Again, other cases in which the class distinction was applied concerned upholsterers as distinct from furniture makers and finishers (1428 Oreg. A.); millworkers as distinct from truck drivers (1854 N. J. D.) and from overhead engineers (1969 Ind. A.); foremen and shipping clerks as distinct from cabinetmakers and millworkers (1066 Minn. A.; 1421 Minn. A.); an extra truck driver as distinct from the regular employees of a mine (2137 Ind. A.); engineers, maintenance men, foremen, office employees, as distinct from the other workers of a plant (3376 N. J. D.; 3605 Ind.

²¹ In the *St. Paul and Tacoma Lumber* case quoted above it was held that the payment of regular union dues is not a financing of a dispute, at least until there is proof that a definite amount of dues is set aside for dispute purposes.

R.); and workers in a preparation department as distinct from the workers in a weaving department (3603 Conn. R.).

However, in contrast to the reasoning underlying these decisions, occasionally the view has been expressed that shop foremen and mechanics, though not of the same grade, are of the same class as other workers of an establishment, when continuance of their operations is dependent upon the work of the latter. (2254 Wash. R.) In another decision it was even argued that all workers of a plant—including office employees, watchmen, firemen, foreman—belonged to the same grade or class of workers regardless of whether they were covered by the disputed general working agreement. (2139 Iowa A.)

As already mentioned, many State laws provide a special relief from disqualification, if workers are not involved in a dispute because they are employed in separate departments, in a branch of work usually conducted as a separate business on separate premises. Three ideas appear to be combined in this clause: That the branch in which the worker is employed is capable of being conducted as a separate business; that it is commonly conducted as a separate business; finally, that it is commonly conducted on separate premises.

In a negative way some types of work may be mentioned which are not capable of being conducted as separate businesses: Ancillary work; work that is of the nature of a complementary process in the operation of the plant; work in the general office of a manufacturer, and the like. On the other hand, a company store operated by a textile company was held to be a separate branch of work. (1858 S. C.) The same rule was applied to a sawmill which was three-eighths of a mile distant from the remainder of the employer's plant and operated separately from the other units. (2238 Ark. A.) On the other hand, laundry and dry-cleaning services were held to be usually carried on as a single enterprise and not commonly conducted as separate businesses. (2255 W. Va. A.) A survey of these decisions leads to the conclusion that the question whether a branch of work is commonly carried on as a separate business, and the related question whether it is commonly conducted on separate premises, are to be answered on their merits separately for each trade in accordance with common practice. Also the question of what is to be considered as a separate department may give rise to difficulties in borderline cases.

Concluding Observations

In the foregoing analysis, which is necessarily quite condensed, no attempt has been made to discuss the merits of the decisions rendered in disputed cases. Conflicting views have been cited without commenting upon the reasoning underlying them. The interpretation of

the disqualification provisions of the State laws is still in a state of flux, but the States which have followed the pattern of the British law in devising the disqualification provisions have been able to take advantage of the large volume of judicial reasoning which has been accumulated for almost two decades in the decisions of the British umpires. With all the complexities involved in interpreting the disqualification provisions, the appeal tribunals of the State agencies have endeavored to apply that spirit of fairness which is characteristic of a sound judiciary.

PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, SEPTEMBER 1940¹

PRIVATE jobs filled by public employment offices during September approached the all-time high established in October 1939. If, however, adjustment were made for the smaller number of working days in September, the volume of private placements made in this month would represent a new record. More than 305,000 jobs with private employers were filled by the Nation-wide employment-service system, an increase of 6 percent over September 1939, the previous highest September in the history of the United States Employment Service. More than half of these jobs were expected to last a month or longer. In addition, a new record of 275,000 supplementary placements was set, reflecting the peak demand for agricultural workers in connection with harvesting operations. The employment offices also completed 47,000 placements in public and governmental service. Largely as a result of the improvement in employment opportunities, the number of workers seeking jobs through the public employment offices declined below the 5-million mark for the first time in nearly 3 years.

Reflecting expanded defense activities to some extent, increases in private placements for September were reported by 36 States, with August volumes more than doubled in New Mexico and South Carolina and gains of 75 and 61 percent in Arizona and North Carolina, respectively. The gains in New Mexico and Arizona were largely attributable to sharp increases in agricultural placements and in North and South Carolina the increases mainly reflected seasonal industrial expansion. Connecticut, New Jersey, and Rhode Island reported expansions ranging between 30 and 40 percent and several other leading industrial States showed significant increases. Only 9 States reported decreases in excess of 10 percent.

Public employment offices filled nearly 2,300,000 jobs in private employment in the first 9 months of 1940, a gain of more than 21 percent over the corresponding period of 1939. Higher volumes of

¹ Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board

placements were reported in all but 8 States and only 2 of these showed substantial declines.

Jobs filled in public and governmental work during September totaled 47,000, a decline of 6 percent from August and 29 percent below the level of September 1939. Reflecting the curtailment in construction activities on public works and relief projects, public placements during January-September 1940 totaled 339,000, only half the volume of such placements for the same period of last year.

Supplementary placements increased 65 percent in September to 275,300. Nearly 257,000, or 93 percent, of these placements were agricultural jobs and more than 169,000, or 62 percent, of all supplementary placements were made by Texas. Fairly large volumes of supplementary placements, ranging between 16,000 and 20,000, were reported in Arkansas, California, Oregon, and Tennessee. The number of workers applying for jobs during September decreased 5 percent to 1,200,000. This was the second successive monthly decline and the smallest number of applications for work received in any month since July 1939. Decreases were reported by 30 States, with declines ranging between 25 and 37 percent in Ohio, North Dakota, and South Dakota. Only 10 States reported increases in excess of 10 percent. The number of job seekers registered for work at the end of September declined 6 percent to 4,900,000 as a result of increased placements and fewer applications for work, as well as the removal from active files of names of persons who failed to indicate during the month that they were actively seeking work. Decreases were reported in 40 States with reductions between 15 and 20 percent in the number of job seekers occurring in Oklahoma, Rhode Island, and Wyoming and of more than 10 percent in California, Connecticut, Hawaii, Missouri, South Dakota, and Virginia. On the other hand, only 1 State—Louisiana—reported an increase of more than 10 percent.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Placement Activities of Public Employment Services, September 1940

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		August 1940	September 1939 ¹	September 1938
Total complete placements.....	352,578	+6.6	-0.5	+25.4
Private.....	305,245	+8.9	+5.9	+50.7
Regular.....	162,396	+10.2	+14.8	+68.4
Temporary.....	142,849	+7.4	-2.7	+34.6
Public.....	47,333	-6.1	-28.7	-39.8
Supplemental placements.....	275,342	+64.8	+34.0
Total applications.....	1,206,808	-5.2	-6.4	+12.7
Active file.....	4,913,505	-5.7	-13.4	-38.3

¹ Excludes South Dakota, as State agency suspended operations during September 1939.

Veteran placements during September numbered 11,200, an increase of 4 percent over the previous month. Approximately 8,800 of these were in private employment, an increase of 10 percent over August and 3 percent over September 1939. Placements of veterans in public jobs declined 12 percent from August to 2,400. Applications for work received during the month declined 5 percent to approximately 47,000. The number of veterans actively seeking work through public employment offices at the end of September totaled 211,500, or about 9,000 fewer than on August 31, 1940.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, September 1940

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		August 1940	September 1939 ¹	September 1938
Total complete placements.....	11,242	+4.4	-7.4	-10.6
Private.....	8,799	+10.0	+3.2	+19.1
Regular.....	3,379	+8.3	+11.5	+33.4
Temporary.....	5,420	+11.1	-1.5	+11.7
Public.....	2,443	-12.0	-32.7	-52.9
Total applications.....	46,802	-4.9	+14.1	+9.8
Active file.....	211,504	-4.1	-11.3	-49.0

¹ Excludes South Dakota, as State agency suspended operations during September 1939.

TABLE 3.—Activities of Public Employment Services, All Registrants, by States, September 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Oct. 22, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements						Sup- ple- mental place- ments	Applications received			Active file as of Sept. 30, 1940
	Total	Private				Public		Num- ber	Percent of change from—		
		Num- ber	Percent of change from—		Regu- lar (over 1 month)						
			Aug- ust 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1939							
Total.....	352,578	305,245	+8.9	+5.9	162,396	47,333	275,342	1,206,808	-5.2	+6.4	4,913,505
Region I:											
Connecticut.....	7,243	5,998	+35.8	+41.0	4,092	1,245	44	18,213	+4.2	+11.5	64,008
Maine.....	2,273	1,703	-23.2	+20.8	1,278	570	15	9,265	+14.7	+11.1	27,112
Massachusetts.....	4,966	4,310	+15.0	+47.6	2,829	656	35	31,903	-5.6	+13.5	179,643
New Hampshire.....	2,134	1,649	-6.2	+18.0	1,190	485	184	6,848	+5.7	+16.6	16,880
Rhode Island.....	1,055	989	+38.3	+18.7	658	66	21	9,262	+7.2	+31.4	39,708
Vermont.....	1,079	986	+16.8	-34.4	393	93	9	2,241	+24.3	-22.8	11,704
Region II:											
New York.....	35,444	34,154	+12.9	+68.1	17,400	1,290	607	153,085	+13.2	-24.5	503,948
Region III:											
Delaware.....	1,329	1,172	+19.5	-21.7	621	157	148	3,337	+12.8	-22.8	9,222
New Jersey.....	11,494	11,198	+31.7	+4.7	6,861	296	119	40,053	+9.6	-6.7	224,586
Pennsylvania.....	13,883	11,715	+19.8	+43.2	8,123	2,168	784	104,066	-12.0	-5.8	345,166
Region IV:											
District of Colum- bia.....	4,185	3,999	+11.2	+16.4	1,878	186	1	11,814	-4.0	+16.4	26,543
Maryland.....	4,293	3,682	+3.1	+23.0	2,138	611	3	18,580	+4	+7.5	60,182
North Carolina.....	10,325	8,725	+60.6	+32.6	6,183	1,600	3,214	28,213	+14.9	+9.1	92,338
Virginia.....	8,642	7,659	+24.5	+50.8	5,674	983	277	17,334	+5	-19.2	47,988
West Virginia.....	2,691	2,388	-2	-22.2	1,290	303	141	15,680	-14.7	-11.8	65,931
Region V:											
Kentucky.....	2,762	2,206	+27.4	-4.7	1,140	556	132	15,339	-15.7	-35.1	85,107
Michigan.....	13,022	11,196	+4.0	+4.9	6,826	1,826	45	51,594	-19.8	+2.2	218,651
Ohio.....	18,273	17,195	+21.7	+17.3	10,179	1,678	579	67,316	-37.4	-6.9	363,428
Region VI:											
Illinois.....	14,303	14,142	+8.7	+14.2	7,607	161	616	54,305	-4	+2	188,973
Indiana.....	9,125	8,794	+21.2	-1	5,392	331	1,300	37,416	-4.4	+11.1	133,686
Wisconsin.....	7,721	7,174	+4.2	+5.5	4,036	547	612	29,104	+12.0	+6.5	93,077
Region VII:											
Alabama.....	4,205	3,649	+13.1	-12.2	2,376	556	380	21,179	-7.2	+1.4	100,500
Florida.....	4,394	2,694	+11.3	+52.2	1,994	1,700	173	18,215	+16.3	+36.4	65,111
Georgia.....	8,530	6,590	-32.6	-8.7	3,581	1,940	232	20,503	-15.0	-15.7	153,072
Mississippi.....	4,912	2,575	+18.6	-50.6	1,751	2,337	295	21,942	+13.4	-22.2	69,883
South Carolina.....	3,839	2,949	+104.2	+36.6	2,143	890	29	8,817	-4.1	-1.6	47,822
Tennessee.....	5,371	4,851	+6.4	-4.4	3,025	520	19,054	11,359	-18.0	-13.5	98,553
Region VIII:											
Iowa.....	7,429	5,812	+21.6	-7.2	2,311	1,617	532	14,475	-11.1	-7.1	64,038
Minnesota.....	7,372	6,458	-4.2	+10.7	2,883	914	411	16,891	-14.4	-8.0	119,497
Nebraska.....	3,357	2,049	+23.0	+11.7	963	1,308	76	8,835	-14.8	-4.3	41,353
North Dakota.....	7,048	6,483	-38.8	+75.4	1,114	565	47	8,287	-34.7	+47.0	23,199
South Dakota.....	2,062	1,247	-15.4	(1)	479	815	121	3,267	-25.2	(1)	21,509
Region IX:											
Arkansas.....	3,920	3,448	+27.1	-31.1	1,467	472	19,660	10,812	+15.9	+40.4	35,372
Kansas.....	5,367	4,189	+29.7	+59.2	1,452	1,178	238	14,374	-13.2	+6.3	56,534
Missouri.....	8,941	7,733	+5.1	-13.3	4,431	1,208	5,367	33,747	-17.2	-18.0	157,045
Oklahoma.....	6,033	4,452	+25.9	-20.6	1,193	1,581	2,283	15,342	-4.4	-17.5	66,259
Region X:											
Louisiana.....	3,387	3,185	+21.7	-26.7	2,204	202	475	23,149	+15.0	+8.0	97,299
New Mexico.....	2,453	2,151	+147.2	-61.2	876	302	1,245	3,326	-1	-54.8	33,193
Texas.....	27,690	23,303	+1.2	+2.1	8,063	4,387	169,476	46,112	-10.8	-1.3	213,949
Region XI:											
Arizona.....	2,625	2,314	+74.6	-20.6	1,509	311	3,253	6,241	+2.4	-8.0	18,871
Colorado.....	7,791	7,377	-6.2	+15.2	1,901	414	1,114	14,636	+10.0	-5	51,223
Idaho.....	2,411	2,078	-13.2	-8.9	890	333	962	5,790	-13.8	-7.8	13,413
Montana.....	2,401	1,648	+2.2	+61.4	1,015	753	560	4,201	-12.6	-8.9	16,784
Utah.....	1,414	1,003	-15.1	-42.4	496	411	387	6,652	-10.6	-14.0	21,575
Wyoming.....	1,116	633	-6.6	-29.9	293	483	50	2,691	-15.9	-11.9	4,939
Region XII:											
California.....	28,208	24,403	+3.0	-1.3	12,790	3,805	15,952	90,895	+7.2	-9.7	391,447
Nevada.....	926	818	-24.6	-14.3	415	108	194	2,652	-19.1	+6.8	5,618
Oregon.....	5,732	4,542	+9.1	-35.3	2,369	1,190	17,886	16,796	-4.4	+9.5	28,003
Washington.....	5,681	4,771	-3.0	-55.1	2,349	910	5,979	27,500	+1.0	+11.4	91,676
Territories:											
Alaska.....	635	299	-27.1	+32.3	101	336	12	1,016	-6.6	+49.6	1,034
Hawaii.....	1,086	507	-18.8	+46.5	144	579	13	2,138	+6.0	+8.6	7,433

¹ Excludes South Dakota, as State agency suspended operations during September 1939.

TABLE 4.—Activities of Public Employment Services, Veterans, by States, September 1940
[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Oct. 22, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Complete placements						Applications received			Active file as of Sept. 30, 1940
	Total	Num- ber	Private		Regular (over 1 month)	Pub- lic	Num- ber	Percent of change from—		
			Percent of change from—					August 1940 ¹	Septem- ber 1939 ¹	
			August 1940 ¹	Septem- ber 1939 ¹						
Total.....	11,242	8,799	+10.0	+3.2	3,379	2,443	46,802	-4.9	+14.1	211,504
Region I:										
Connecticut.....	285	223	+57.0	+90.6	130	62	690	+9.5	+31.7	2,761
Maine.....	74	44			34	30	403	-7.1	+24.4	1,561
Massachusetts.....	120	92	+43.8	+33.3	60	28	943	+5.4	+13.9	5,049
New Hampshire.....	95	69	+3.0	+23.2	56	26	271	-2.5	+30.3	637
Rhode Island.....	31	24			12	7	270	+26.2	+104.5	970
Vermont.....	45	43			14	2	102		+30.8	635
Region II:										
New York.....	563	515	+10.0	+37.7	189	48	2,612	+21.9	-43.4	13,903
Region III:										
Delaware.....	27	18			7	9	85	-17.5	-59.7	300
New Jersey.....	183	168	+41.2	+27.3	94	15	1,102	+11.6	+19.1	7,167
Pennsylvania.....	314	244	+8.0	+60.5	172	70	4,322	-10.2	+30.3	14,444
Region IV:										
Dist. of Columbia.....	142	120	+44.6	+7.1	32	22	631	-3.2	+30.6	1,581
Maryland.....	202	150	+3.4	+25.0	74	52	778	+26.3	+22.1	2,424
North Carolina.....	179	135	+37.8	+25.0	68	44	781	+30.4	+41.2	2,353
Virginia.....	192	146	+11.4	+8.1	78	46	443	+2.3	-17.8	1,237
West Virginia.....	73	54		-6.9	28	19	638	-6.6	+15.8	3,503
Region V:										
Kentucky.....	83	57		-17.4	24	26	601	-27.6	-12.0	3,706
Michigan.....	498	390	+8.9	+29.1	210	108	2,420	-14.4	+29.3	9,162
Ohio.....	532	490	+5.8	+13.7	208	42	3,043	-56.3	+31.6	19,494
Region VI:										
Illinois.....	384	358	+12.2	+9.5	109	26	2,238	+11.8	+66.0	8,453
Indiana.....	263	250	+35.1	+42.8	124	13	1,550	+6.4	+55.3	5,888
Wisconsin.....	215	176	0	+21.4	73	39	1,756	+44.2	+51.8	6,025
Region VII:										
Alabama.....	99	84	+5.0	-2.3	53	15	771	-14.8	+39.9	4,231
Florida.....	135	80	+6.7		54	55	669	+3	+11.9	2,797
Georgia.....	177	127	-23.5	-34.5	50	50	475	-6	-11.2	4,227
Mississippi.....	98	42			19	56	714	+84.0	+20.6	1,983
South Carolina.....	86	61		+10.9	35	25	262	-13.0	-8.1	1,513
Tennessee.....	152	132	+30.7	-29.8	56	20	415	-19.1	-9.6	3,762
Region VIII:										
Iowa.....	398	297	-3.6	-23.8	93	101	658	-14.3	-13.1	4,026
Minnesota.....	275	207	-25.5	+14.4	76	68	755	-7.9	+10.0	7,785
Nebraska.....	124	81	+32.8	+26.6	21	43	386	-24.9	+30.8	2,498
North Dakota.....	183	164	-41.8	+56.2	17	19	223	-29.0	+39.4	1,024
South Dakota.....	88	37			8	51	157	-20.3	(?)	1,144
Region IX:										
Arkansas.....	105	91	+65.4	-47.4	20	14	571	+55.6	+79.6	1,590
Kansas.....	195	145	+35.5	+45.0	29	50	622	-10.8	+15.2	3,560
Missouri.....	389	354	+24.6	+45.7	146	35	1,442	-22.0	+25.6	7,188
Oklahoma.....	332	183	+71.0	-22.4	15	149	788	+11.1	-11.4	4,053
Region X:										
Louisiana.....	44	34			18	10	693	+10.4	+24.2	3,016
New Mexico.....	49	35			13	14	121	-23.9	-48.5	1,789
Texas.....	891	663	-3.9	-10.6	135	228	1,455	+4.8	+30.7	6,394
Region XI:										
Arizona.....	98	82	+60.8	-12.8	51	16	325	-14.0	+18.2	1,232
Colorado.....	224	203	-4.2	-11.7	36	21	615	+7	-3	2,221
Idaho.....	163	126	-16.6	-8.7	32	37	329	-19.8	-5.4	716
Montana.....	158	95	-3.1	+66.7	50	63	308	-6.7	-6.1	1,062
Utah.....	87	27			12	60	252	-12.5	-51.4	1,088
Wyoming.....	52	19			6	33	144	-17.7	-22.2	300
Region XII:										
California.....	1,366	1,093	+24.8	-1.0	343	273	5,303	+24.1	+9.5	23,481
Nevada.....	93	80	-19.2	-4.8	22	13	148	-5.7	-21.3	293
Oregon.....	321	254	-5.6	-28.2	97	67	945	-5.9	+30.0	2,074
Washington.....	300	214	+36.3	+5	66	86	1,480	+48.3	+99.7	4,773
Territories:										
Alaska.....	33	13			8	20	70	+14.8		59
Hawaii.....	27	10			2	17	27			322

¹ Where less than 50 veteran placements or applications were involved in either period the percentage change was not computed.

² Excludes South Dakota, as State agency suspended operations during September 1939.

UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, SEPTEMBER 1940¹

SEASONAL increases in employment and, to some extent, expanding activity in defense and related industries contributed to the reduced volume of unemployment-compensation claims and payments in September. Continued claims filed by claimants for unemployment benefits decreased 28 percent to 4,300,000, and benefit payments declined from \$51,700,000 in August to \$36,600,000. Unemployment benefits in September were the lowest since December 1939 and compensated only 3,600,000 weeks of total and partial unemployment. A minimum of 1,000,000 unemployed workers received at least one benefit payment in September, and the weekly average of benefit recipients totaled 875,000. The sharpest declines in benefit payments were generally reported by the leading industrial States, and only 3 of the 47 States with decreases reported declines of less than 10 percent.

Increased employment in a number of industries contributed to decreases in claim receipts, according to special reports from State agencies. Employment gains occurred in the following areas and industries: In Maine, in the textile industry, although there was a seasonal decline in the shoe industry; in New Jersey, in textile and needle-trade activities, offset to some extent by decreased employment resulting from the close of the summer season at seashore resorts; in Pennsylvania, in textiles, construction, and canning, as well as in tool and plant operations expanding in anticipation of Government orders; in Illinois, in building construction, meat packing, and electrical appliances, although curtailed employment was reported in clothing, shoe manufacturing, printing and publishing, glass, rubber, and brick industries; in Maryland, in the garment trades; in Alabama, in lumbering, building construction, ship-building, textiles, cottonseed and peanut oil, and steel manufacture; in Georgia, in textiles, construction, and agricultural processing; in South Carolina, in the textile industry; and in Oklahoma, in food manufacturing, cottonseed oil, and construction.

Claims

Nearly 4,300,000 continued claims were received in local offices during September, a decline of 28 percent from August and the lowest level thus far this year. Decreases occurred in 48 States, only 3 of which reported declines of less than 10 percent. Reductions of 63 and 42 percent, were shown in Michigan and Indiana, respectively, and decreases in excess of 30 percent were also reported in Kentucky, North Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Washington, and Wyoming. In addition to Michigan and Indiana, each of the leading industrial States reported

¹ Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

significant declines from August claim receipts. In Hawaii, on the other hand, claim receipts increased 41 percent over August, largely as a result of curtailment of canning operations.

The weekly average number of continued claims filed declined successively in each month of the third quarter, reflecting the return to work of substantial numbers of claimants as well as exhaustion of benefit rights on the part of others. During July the weekly average of continued claim receipts totaled 1,600,000, approximately the same as the average number for June; in August, however, the average weekly number declined 14 percent to 1,400,000 followed by a further decline of 25 percent to approximately 1 million in September. From the high of 1,700,000 during the week ended July 13, 1940, partly the result of the holiday in the previous week, continued claim receipts declined steadily each week to approximately 930,000 during the last week of September. Declines of 50 percent or more from the July high week to the low week ending September 28 occurred in 13 States, among which were several leading industrial States. On the other hand, the number of continued claims receipts was greater in the District of Columbia and Hawaii and was only slightly lower than during the midweek of July in Arizona, Kansas, Kentucky, Nebraska, and Nevada.

Variations in the weekly claim load reflected improved economic conditions and to a lesser extent the administrative factors. Beginning with the midweek in August the rate of decrease in the receipt of continued claims from week to week was more marked than it was in the weeks immediately preceding. Despite the steady decrease for the country as a whole, however, divergent trends were noted during the 13-week period in many of the States. For example, in Michigan, where many automobile workers were laid off late in June and in July, claim receipts rose rapidly until the second week of August, and then declined sharply as claimants returned to employment after retooling had been completed.

For the country as a whole, there was little variation in the trend of continued claims for total unemployment as compared with claims for all unemployment, since the majority of claims filed are for total unemployment. The weekly average of continued claims received for total unemployment in July exceeded 1,400,000, a slight gain over June. In August, however, there was a 15-percent decline to an average of 1,200,000, followed by a further decline of 26 percent in September to 902,000. From the high week ending July 13, when more than 1,500,000 workers filed claims for total unemployment, there was a continuous and rapid decline to the last week of September, when only 821,000 claims for total unemployment were received.

Benefits

Benefit payments to unemployed workers declined 29 percent, from \$51,700,000 to \$36,600,000. Despite the sharp reduction, the amount disbursed was somewhat higher than in September 1939. The decrease was general, with 47 jurisdictions reporting smaller disbursements than in August. Reflecting chiefly the reemployment of automobile workers, payments in Michigan were less than half of August disbursements, and Alaska and Indiana each reported decreases of 44 percent. The increases in benefit payments in the District of Columbia and South Carolina primarily reflected the initiation of many new benefit years in July, while curtailment of canning operations was mainly responsible for the increase in Hawaii. The slight increase in Louisiana, arising from the reduction of the compensable claims backlog, resulted in a new high for monthly disbursements in that State.

Changes in the number of weeks compensated closely paralleled changes in the amount of benefits paid. More than 3,600,000 weeks of unemployment were compensated during the month, a decline of 28 percent from August, with the sharpest reductions generally occurring in the larger industrial States. Weeks of total unemployment declined from 4,500,000 in August to 3,200,000 in September, and comprised 90 percent of all weeks of unemployment compensated, as in August. In the 46 States issuing payments for partial and part-total unemployment, more than 371,000 such weeks were compensated during September, a decline of 26 percent from the previous month. It is to be expected that the number of weeks compensated for less than full-time employment will continue to decline as expanding industrial operations restore to full employment those workers previously employed on part-time schedules. More than one-third of all weeks of unemployment compensated in Delaware and Illinois and more than 20 percent of all weeks of unemployment compensated in Indiana, Maine, Missouri, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Wyoming, were for partial and part-total unemployment.

During the first 9 months of 1940 more than \$427,000,000 was disbursed to unemployed workers. This amount represented an increase of 16 percent over January–September 1939 for the 49 States which paid benefits throughout both periods, despite the cessation of benefits to railroad workers from State unemployment-compensation funds since July 1939. To a certain extent, the increases have reflected administrative factors and legislative changes rather than economic conditions, although higher earnings in base periods of claimants have tended to increase the amount of benefit credits available. Increased disbursements were reported by 34 States, with the sharpest expansions shown in Florida and Oregon where payments were at least twice those reported in 1939. Increases ranging between 60 and 75 percent were

reported by Alaska, Arkansas, California, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Washington. Of the 15 States reporting decreases in the amounts of payments, the major reductions, ranging from 20 to 30 percent, were shown for Iowa, Michigan, and Pennsylvania. Decreased payments were reported in 3 other industrial States—Indiana, North Carolina, and West Virginia.

To date, unemployed workers have received approximately \$1,300,000,000 in benefit payments since unemployment-compensation programs were initiated by the various States. Half of this amount has gone to claimants in 4 of the largest industrial States—California, Michigan, New York, and Pennsylvania.

Claimants Receiving Benefits

The weekly average number of claimants receiving benefits in September declined 22 percent to \$75,400, the third successive monthly decrease since the record high of \$1,300,000 in June. Although the number of claimants receiving benefits in September was lower than in any other month this year, it nevertheless represented a substantial increase over September 1939. Decreases in the number of recipients occurred in 46 States, with the largest decline—47 percent—reported in Michigan and reductions of 30 to 40 percent shown in Alaska, Indiana, North Dakota, New Jersey, Rhode Island, Virginia, and West Virginia. Fourteen other States reported decreases of more than 20 percent. The largest relative declines since June—more than 50 percent—have occurred in Hawaii, Maine, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and South Dakota, and reductions of more than 25 percent have been shown in practically all the industrial States.

Statistics of Unemployment Compensation

Table 1 shows data for the period of September 1940, while tables 2 and 3 give information on continued claims, week by week, for all types of unemployment and total unemployment, respectively.

TABLE 1.—Continued Unemployment Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by States, September 1940

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Oct. 23, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Continued claims			Weeks compensated			
	Number	Type		Number	Type of unemployment		
		Waiting period	Compens- able		Total	Partial and part-total combined	Partial only ¹
Total	4, 256, 286	777, 193	3, 479, 093	3, 606, 641	3, 235, 246	371, 395	
Region I:							
Connecticut	42, 110	7, 862	34, 248	34, 017	30, 660	3, 357	(⁴)
Maine	35, 510	5, 128	30, 382	29, 880	29, 694	9, 186	(⁶)
Massachusetts	279, 521	25, 306	254, 215	244, 547	244, 547	(¹)	(¹)
New Hampshire	22, 324	9, 434	12, 890	12, 318	8, 933	3, 385	(⁴)
Rhode Island	50, 751	9, 731	41, 020	41, 020	32, 197	8, 823	(⁶)
Vermont	8, 045	2, 359	5, 686	5, 700	5, 129	571	461
Region II:							
New York	677, 786	116, 873	560, 913	507, 772	507, 772	(¹)	(¹)
Region III:							
Delaware	6, 922	716	6, 206	6, 174	3, 934	2, 240	2, 149
New Jersey	133, 465	31, 831	101, 634	96, 544	96, 544	(¹)	(¹)
Pennsylvania	351, 347	89, 910	261, 437	272, 246	272, 246	(¹)	(¹)
Region IV:							
Dist. of Columbia	18, 871	3, 152	15, 719	16, 759	15, 699	1, 060	(⁴)
Maryland	58, 007	5, 790	52, 217	49, 481	42, 214	7, 267	6, 828
North Carolina	102, 328	17, 209	85, 119	89, 011	81, 837	7, 174	6, 592
Virginia	58, 419	6, 427	51, 992	53, 559	44, 139	9, 420	7, 898
West Virginia	44, 417	8, 316	36, 101	34, 755	34, 352	403	(⁴)
Region V:							
Kentucky	33, 986	10, 430	23, 556	49, 009	40, 779	8, 230	(⁴)
Michigan	221, 419	23, 147	198, 272	244, 134	212, 832	31, 302	(⁴)
Ohio	211, 044	49, 493	161, 551	166, 192	134, 713	31, 479	(⁴)
Region VI:							
Illinois	290, 812	36, 735	254, 077	258, 005	169, 198	88, 807	67, 519
Indiana	76, 857	15, 109	61, 748	61, 652	48, 554	13, 098	(⁴)
Wisconsin	38, 159	9, 573	28, 586	28, 102	25, 529	2, 573	1, 238
Region VII:							
Alabama	81, 740	15, 886	65, 854	66, 163	62, 462	3, 701	2, 469
Florida	95, 037	11, 067	83, 970	85, 323	77, 380	7, 943	(⁴)
Georgia	78, 386	13, 078	65, 308	61, 909	55, 758	6, 151	4, 910
Mississippi	41, 409	6, 485	34, 924	32, 528	31, 086	1, 442	(⁴)
South Carolina	43, 792	9, 134	34, 658	36, 831	31, 673	5, 158	2, 714
Tennessee	88, 088	11, 890	76, 198	70, 453	63, 387	7, 066	2, 646
Region VIII:							
Iowa	35, 281	9, 582	25, 699	26, 469	21, 628	4, 841	1, 879
Minnesota	55, 530	7, 470	48, 060	45, 429	40, 736	4, 693	(⁴)
Nebraska	13, 793	2, 051	11, 742	11, 861	10, 798	1, 063	428
North Dakota	3, 239	444	2, 795	2, 554	2, 305	249	98
South Dakota	3, 267	632	2, 635	2, 596	2, 291	305	(⁴)
Region IX:							
Arkansas	44, 287	7, 193	37, 094	37, 094	34, 597	2, 497	157
Kansas	20, 972	8, 176	12, 796	12, 944	11, 276	1, 668	822
Missouri	93, 600	33, 534	60, 066	64, 885	49, 394	15, 491	10, 190
Oklahoma	35, 064	7, 785	27, 279	27, 549	23, 599	3, 950	525
Region X:							
Louisiana	97, 370	15, 897	81, 473	80, 451	75, 243	5, 208	(⁴)
New Mexico	13, 511	1, 600	11, 911	11, 690	9, 726	1, 964	1, 609
Texas	138, 672	66, 282	72, 390	96, 802	82, 446	14, 356	(⁴)
Region XI:							
Arizona	12, 151	2, 062	9, 489	9, 443	8, 928	515	31
Colorado	25, 573	3, 046	22, 527	23, 373	20, 218	3, 155	2, 189
Idaho	8, 035	1, 762	6, 273	7, 186	6, 629	557	(⁴)
Montana	15, 026	2, 518	12, 508	11, 705	11, 705	(¹)	(¹)
Utah	17, 227	2, 686	14, 541	14, 302	13, 112	1, 190	192
Wyoming	4, 675	816	3, 859	3, 826	3, 011	815	519
Region XII:							
California	356, 516	38, 833	317, 683	315, 258	274, 248	41, 010	25, 564
Nevada	5, 684	736	4, 948	4, 325	3, 984	341	135
Oregon	20, 159	4, 178	15, 981	15, 135	12, 309	2, 826	2, 133
Washington	38, 015	5, 767	32, 248	32, 653	27, 983	4, 670	(⁴)
Territories:							
Alaska	5, 099	574	4, 525	3, 364	3, 273	91	0
Hawaii	2, 988	898	2, 090	1, 663	1, 559	104	94

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—Continued Unemployment Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensation, and Benefits Paid, by States, September 1940—Continued

[Data reported by State agencies, corrected to Oct. 23, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Benefits paid				Month and year benefits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable ³
	Amount ²	Type of unemployment				
		Total	Partial and part-total combined ¹	Partial only ¹		
Total.....	\$36, 594, 233	\$34, 254, 331	\$2, 321, 794			\$1, 251, 712, 698
Region I:						
Connecticut.....	314, 369	296, 207	17, 467	(⁴)	January 1938.....	21, 866, 382
Maine.....	197, 018	140, 023	56, 995	(⁴)	do.....	10, 330, 711
Massachusetts.....	2, 491, 069	2, 491, 069	(⁴)	(⁴)	do.....	72, 273, 368
New Hampshire.....	93, 377	77, 338	16, 039	(⁴)	do.....	6, 149, 970
Rhode Island.....	405, 151	364, 459	40, 692	(⁴)	do.....	22, 102, 125
Vermont.....	45, 312	42, 534	2, 778	\$2, 085	do.....	2, 167, 167
Region II:						
New York.....	6, 844, 990	6, 844, 990	(⁴)	(⁴)	do.....	248, 324, 850
Region III:						
Delaware.....	46, 016	35, 190	10, 751	10, 134	January 1939.....	1, 417, 813
New Jersey.....	956, 733	956, 733	(⁴)	(⁴)	do.....	28, 233, 698
Pennsylvania.....	2, 926, 098	2, 926, 098	(⁴)	(⁴)	January 1938.....	163, 674, 060
Region IV:						
Dist. of Columbia.....	184, 612	173, 406	10, 720	(⁴)	do.....	4, 596, 925
Maryland.....	433, 381	392, 207	40, 995	38, 045	do.....	21, 509, 459
North Carolina.....	414, 884	395, 637	18, 711	16, 389	do.....	16, 375, 341
Virginia.....	401, 885	355, 456	46, 210	36, 638	do.....	15, 173, 188
West Virginia.....	290, 940	287, 518	3, 422	(⁴)	do.....	19, 512, 269
Region V:						
Kentucky.....	380, 875	341, 985	37, 258	(⁴)	January 1939.....	8, 594, 704
Michigan.....	3, 033, 816	2, 826, 713	207, 103	(⁴)	July 1938.....	101, 241, 303
Ohio.....	⁶ 1, 503, 015	⁶ 1, 359, 214	⁶ 143, 801	(⁴)	January 1939.....	⁶ 44, 497, 614
Region VI:						
Illinois.....	2, 788, 820	2, 163, 713	619, 089	434, 527	July 1939.....	52, 689, 230
Indiana.....	589, 355	520, 527	68, 657	(⁴)	April 1938.....	34, 548, 397
Wisconsin.....	321, 901	305, 088	16, 813	6, 635	July 1936.....	18, 910, 481
Region VII:						
Alabama.....	411, 022	392, 797	18, 058	11, 674	January 1938.....	16, 193, 762
Florida.....	834, 492	774, 859	59, 633	(⁴)	January 1939.....	8, 473, 914
Georgia.....	403, 470	380, 172	23, 298	18, 832	do.....	6, 861, 926
Mississippi.....	189, 827	183, 284	¹ 6, 376	(⁴)	April 1938.....	4, 655, 711
South Carolina.....	238, 568	215, 950	22, 444	10, 380	July 1938.....	4, 704, 503
Tennessee.....	508, 244	477, 461	30, 783	9, 999	January 1938.....	15, 685, 562
Region VIII:						
Iowa.....	239, 762	213, 749	25, 826	8, 747	July 1938.....	11, 194, 229
Minnesota.....	445, 812	410, 861	34, 951	(⁴)	January 1938.....	23, 780, 971
Nebraska.....	106, 106	98, 378	7, 728	2, 882	January 1939.....	2, 802, 634
North Dakota.....	22, 642	20, 933	1, 709	617	do.....	1, 067, 444
South Dakota.....	18, 036	16, 050	1, 922	(⁴)	do.....	701, 865
Region IX:						
Arkansas.....	220, 147	210, 335	9, 812	784	do.....	4, 336, 328
Kansas.....	118, 328	107, 270	11, 058	4, 990	do.....	3, 916, 043
Missouri.....	542, 637	464, 948	77, 671	47, 493	do.....	11, 162, 110
Oklahoma.....	257, 960	232, 991	24, 969	2, 287	December 1938.....	7, 299, 433
Region X:						
Louisiana.....	675, 318	639, 245	35, 419	(⁴)	January 1938.....	15, 147, 517
New Mexico.....	104, 376	90, 724	13, 652	10, 758	December 1938.....	2, 173, 792
Texas.....	760, 950	689, 649	70, 921	(⁴)	January 1938.....	28, 049, 435
Region XI:						
Arizona.....	101, 982	97, 984	3, 998	162	do.....	4, 462, 846
Colorado.....	233, 536	209, 915	23, 459	15, 591	January 1939.....	6, 959, 159
Idaho.....	72, 759	68, 353	4, 397	(⁴)	September 1938.....	4, 268, 152
Montana.....	128, 591	128, 591	(⁴)	(⁴)	July 1939.....	3, 393, 367
Utah.....	148, 626	140, 638	7, 988	1, 265	January 1938.....	5, 426, 716
Wyoming.....	45, 164	38, 266	6, 898	3, 990	January 1939.....	2, 207, 155
Region XII:						
California.....	4, 414, 858	4, 033, 246	375, 735	227, 521	January 1938.....	112, 302, 876
Nevada.....	55, 703	52, 542	3, 161	1, 261	January 1939.....	1, 683, 107
Oregon.....	173, 869	152, 741	20, 890	14, 886	January 1938.....	13, 445, 722
Washington.....	398, 054	358, 003	40, 051	(⁴)	January 1939.....	13, 848, 454
Territories:						
Alaska.....	45, 077	44, 293	784	0	do.....	810, 305
Hawaii.....	14, 700	13, 998	702	622	do.....	508, 597

¹ Benefits for partial unemployment are not provided by State law in Montana, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. In Massachusetts and Mississippi provision for such payments is not effective until October 1940. Of these, only Mississippi provides for payments of less than full weekly benefit amount for total unemployment, i. e., part-total unemployment.

² Includes supplemental payments, not classified by type of unemployment.

³ Adjusted to exclude returned and voided benefit checks, except for September.

⁴ Data for partial unemployment included with data for part-total unemployment.

⁵ Payments for part-total and partial unemployment are made for benefit periods of 1 quarter. The number of weeks represented by each such payment is determined by dividing the amount paid by the claimant's benefit rate for total unemployment.

⁶ Figures for September exclude 8 payments amounting to \$140 arising from recalculation of weekly benefit amounts and 38 payments for 80 weeks amounting to \$879 for payment of miners' claims resulting from labor dispute in 1939. Both amounts, however, are included in benefits since first payable.

TABLE 2.—Trend of Continued Claims Received for All Types of Unem
[Data reported by State agencies.]

Marginal No.	Social Security Board region and State	Weekly average					
		July		August		September	
		Number (in thousands)	Percentage change from June	Number (in thousands)	Percentage change from July	Number (in thousands)	Percentage change from August
1	Total.....	1,585.9	-0.5	1,359.5	-14.3	1,014.6	-25.4
	Region I:						
2	Connecticut.....	16.3	+8	13.5	-16.8	10.0	-25.9
3	Maine.....	16.1	-19.5	10.3	-35.9	8.4	-18.0
4	Massachusetts ¹	96.1	-16.5	78.7	-18.1	61.4	-22.0
5	New Hampshire.....	7.7	-38.9	4.9	-36.8	5.2	+7.1
6	Rhode Island.....	23.0	-31.6	16.3	-29.3	12.1	-26.0
7	Vermont.....	2.2	-16.7	1.8	-18.0	1.9	+6.1
8	Region II:						
	New York ¹	344.6	-1.2	226.1	-34.4	161.6	-28.5
	Region III:						
9	Delaware.....	2.3	-9	1.8	-19.2	1.6	-10.2
10	New Jersey ¹	52.4	-4.0	42.5	-18.8	31.6	-25.7
11	Pennsylvania ¹	126.6	+4.1	109.7	-13.3	83.2	-24.2
	Region IV:						
12	District of Columbia.....	4.2	-3.8	4.6	+9.9	4.5	-1.8
13	Maryland.....	25.2	-8.0	19.1	-24.2	13.8	-28.0
14	North Carolina.....	37.4	+10.7	34.1	-8.8	24.6	-27.9
15	Virginia.....	28.2	-9.5	20.4	-27.5	14.2	-30.6
16	West Virginia.....	21.6	+7.3	15.3	-29.2	10.6	-31.0
	Region V:						
17	Kentucky.....	10.4	-2.8	11.5	+11.2	8.2	-29.3
18	Michigan.....	92.8	+64.7	139.7	+50.5	52.9	-62.1
19	Ohio.....	73.0	-8.0	64.1	-12.3	51.6	-19.4
	Region VI:						
20	Illinois.....	113.5	-13.4	85.7	-24.5	60.8	-18.6
21	Indiana.....	31.8	+14.5	29.8	-6.2	18.6	-37.7
22	Wisconsin.....	13.2	+13.8	12.6	-4.0	9.0	-28.4
	Region VII:						
23	Alabama.....	23.0	+8.1	22.4	-2.6	19.7	-12.0
24	Florida.....	26.1	+45.3	25.4	-2.6	22.8	-10.2
25	Georgia.....	24.1	+3.9	22.8	-5.0	19.0	-16.8
26	Mississippi ²	10.0	+12.0	11.1	+10.1	9.9	-10.7
27	South Carolina.....	14.7	+28.8	13.4	-8.3	10.6	-20.9
28	Tennessee.....	29.2	+9.6	27.0	-7.5	21.2	-21.4
	Region VIII:						
29	Iowa.....	10.3	-9	10.1	-1.7	8.6	-15.5
30	Minnesota.....	16.7	-12.9	15.5	-6.7	13.4	-13.6
31	Nebraska.....	3.4	-5.2	3.6	+5.5	3.3	-6.4
32	North Dakota.....	1.3	-11.2	1.0	-21.1	.8	-25.3
33	South Dakota.....	1.3	-13.1	1.0	-27.2	.8	-20.4
	Region IX:						
34	Arkansas.....	16.0	+7.7	13.6	-15.2	10.4	-23.1
35	Kansas.....	5.2	-12.4	5.4	+2.2	5.1	-5.6
36	Missouri.....	28.0	-12.4	27.7	-1.3	23.3	-15.6
37	Oklahoma.....	9.3	-1.2	9.3	-4	8.4	-9.9
	Region X:						
38	Louisiana.....	25.1	+8.3	23.9	-5.0	23.7	-6
39	New Mexico.....	3.4	+14.7	3.6	+8.8	3.2	-11.0
40	Texas.....	42.8	+5.9	40.3	-5.7	33.1	-17.9
	Region XI:						
41	Arizona.....	3.2	+7.7	3.4	+5.0	3.0	-12.2
42	Colorado.....	9.8	+1.2	8.2	-16.0	6.2	-24.1
43	Idaho.....	2.8	-11.7	2.6	-8.3	2.2	-15.6
44	Montana ²	4.3	-15.8	4.1	-5.0	3.6	-11.2
45	Utah.....	4.0	+108.5	4.4	+9.4	4.1	-7.1
46	Wyoming.....	1.8	-17.0	1.6	-13.2	1.1	-28.6
	Region XII:						
47	California.....	103.1	-1.8	93.7	-9.1	84.9	-9.5
48	Nevada.....	1.5	-11.5	1.4	-5.4	1.4	-3.3
49	Oregon.....	7.6	+7.6	5.9	-22.2	4.8	-18.9
50	Washington.....	16.9	+8	12.6	-25.3	9.2	-26.8
	Territories:						
51	Alaska.....	2.0	-4.4	1.5	-24.9	1.3	-13.7
52	Hawaii.....	.4	-56.3	.5	+9.0	.7	+45.1

¹ Includes claims for total, part-total, and partial unemployment.

² Benefits for partial unemployment are not provided in Montana, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. Provision for such payments is not effective in Massachusetts and Mississippi until October 1940. Of these 6 States, only Mississippi provides for payments of less than full weekly benefit amount for total unemployment, i. e., for part-total unemployment.

employment,¹ by States, Weeks Ended in July, August, and September 1940
corrected to Oct. 18, 1940]

Number (in thousands) for week ending—

July 6	July 13	July 20	July 27	Aug. 3	Aug. 10	Aug. 17	Aug. 24	Aug. 31	Sept. 7	Sept. 14	Sept. 21	Sept. 28	Marginal No.
1,461.9	1,700.2	1,614.3	1,567.2	1,512.3	1,467.3	1,369.0	1,276.7	1,172.4	1,095.9	1,054.1	978.6	929.6	1
12.8	18.6	17.3	16.4	15.2	14.1	13.3	13.0	12.2	11.4	10.8	9.5	8.5	2
16.0	17.3	16.2	14.7	11.7	11.2	11.3	9.0	8.2	8.9	8.8	8.4	7.6	3
100.3	102.6	92.9	88.7	84.6	81.0	81.1	75.7	71.2	74.1	62.1	56.2	53.3	4
8.9	9.0	7.2	5.9	5.6	5.2	4.6	4.6	4.4	5.1	5.5	5.4	5.0	5
24.8	23.7	23.7	20.0	18.0	16.5	15.7	14.8	16.5	12.6	12.9	10.7	12.0	6
2.2	2.4	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.3	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	1.8	7
345.8	365.3	339.5	327.8	277.5	242.5	218.1	201.1	191.2	169.3	166.4	158.3	152.4	8
2.0	2.3	2.7	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.9	1.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	2.0	1.4	9
52.0	55.0	52.6	49.9	47.6	46.9	44.2	38.0	36.0	34.9	32.1	29.5	29.9	10
113.4	162.7	115.3	115.1	113.5	123.7	103.2	111.6	96.7	100.8	81.8	77.7	72.5	11
4.2	4.1	4.3	4.2	4.9	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.4	4.6	4.8	4.2	4.5	12
25.9	25.7	26.9	22.4	21.6	19.5	19.4	17.8	17.2	15.0	14.4	13.3	12.3	13
26.3	45.9	40.7	36.8	36.0	35.2	34.0	3.24	33.1	24.1	29.5	23.5	21.4	14
21.8	35.4	29.0	26.7	23.6	23.0	18.4	20.5	16.5	13.8	14.6	15.4	12.8	15
21.5	21.8	21.7	21.6	21.3	15.8	14.3	12.9	12.3	11.4	10.8	10.4	9.8	16
10.7	10.1	11.0	9.6	12.8	10.7	13.4	8.9	11.8	7.1	9.7	6.6	9.2	17
65.4	66.1	111.5	128.0	165.5	172.3	154.3	120.8	85.3	65.9	56.4	48.6	40.7	18
68.6	78.2	74.8	70.5	71.0	66.9	64.8	60.7	56.9	53.7	53.2	50.4	49.1	19
108.6	124.8	115.8	105.0	97.1	90.5	84.3	78.9	77.6	69.4	76.4	68.9	64.4	20
22.8	31.6	39.2	33.4	32.7	35.4	32.7	25.6	22.6	18.7	21.2	17.9	16.4	21
12.0	14.5	13.5	12.8	12.6	13.5	12.9	12.5	11.6	10.7	9.8	8.3	7.5	22
18.6	25.1	24.4	23.8	23.3	22.9	22.0	22.0	21.7	20.3	20.5	19.5	18.6	23
20.8	29.5	26.7	27.4	26.1	26.7	24.9	25.9	23.6	25.3	22.3	22.7	21.0	24
21.8	25.9	24.1	24.5	22.8	24.4	24.1	22.8	20.1	22.7	20.0	18.1	15.1	25
8.7	10.1	10.5	10.8	10.7	10.6	11.4	11.5	11.1	10.8	10.5	9.5	8.6	26
9.5	16.9	16.3	16.0	16.0	13.9	13.6	12.3	11.6	11.5	11.9	9.9	9.2	27
24.2	31.6	28.7	32.2	25.6	31.9	26.4	27.0	24.1	23.6	22.1	21.6	17.5	28
9.6	11.1	10.2	10.3	10.2	10.8	10.3	10.0	9.3	9.5	8.9	7.8	8.0	29
14.2	19.4	16.8	16.2	16.4	16.2	15.6	15.1	14.3	14.1	13.8	13.2	12.5	30
3.1	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.4	31
1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	.9	.8	.8	.8	.7	32
1.4	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	.8	.8	.8	.8	.7	33
14.8	17.6	16.2	15.3	14.1	13.6	13.4	12.8	13.9	9.7	11.8	10.3	9.9	34
4.9	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.5	5.2	5.5	5.2	5.4	4.9	5.4	5.0	5.0	35
23.2	31.1	28.0	29.8	29.2	27.1	29.1	27.3	25.7	24.1	24.4	22.5	22.4	36
8.8	9.3	9.3	9.8	9.4	9.2	9.0	9.8	8.9	8.7	8.7	8.3	7.8	37
20.4	27.3	26.1	26.6	26.0	25.3	25.9	25.4	16.7	29.7	23.2	22.2	19.9	38
2.8	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.7	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.2	3.1	39
41.9	43.6	43.2	42.4	42.6	41.4	39.7	38.6	39.2	35.8	33.6	32.1	30.9	40
2.9	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.5	3.5	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.0	2.9	2.9	41
9.2	10.1	10.0	9.8	8.6	9.4	8.4	7.7	6.9	6.5	6.5	6.2	5.7	42
2.7	2.8	3.1	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.1	43
3.9	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.1	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.6	44
3.6	4.4	4.0	4.1	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.2	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.1	3.9	45
1.6	2.1	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.3	1.0	1.1	46
98.9	109.8	104.1	99.8	98.2	97.1	93.9	91.4	88.1	83.9	85.3	83.5	86.7	47
1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	48
6.4	9.0	8.1	7.0	6.2	6.2	6.2	5.6	5.4	4.5	5.3	5.0	4.5	49
13.2	18.5	18.6	17.4	14.8	13.9	13.0	11.5	10.1	9.5	9.6	9.3	8.6	50
1.5	2.7	2.1	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.6	1.2	1.0	1.3	51
.4	.5	.4	.4	.4	.5	.4	.5	.5	.6	.6	.5	1.0	52

TABLE 3.—Trend of Continued Claims Received for Total Unemployment¹
[Data reported by State agencies]

Marginal number	Social Security Board region and State	Weekly average					
		July		August		September	
		Number (in thousands)	Percent of change from June	Number (in thousands)	Percent of change from July	Number (in thousands)	Percent of change from August
1	Total.....	1,430.4	+0.2	1,212.0	-15.3	902.2	-25.5
	Region I:						
2	Connecticut.....	13.5	+5.3	11.7	-13.3	8.9	-24.2
3	Maine.....	12.1	-17.9	8.1	-33.2	5.9	-27.6
4	Massachusetts.....	96.1	-16.5	78.7	-18.1	61.4	-22.0
5	New Hampshire.....	5.1	-37.6	3.4	-31.9	3.1	-10.3
6	Rhode Island.....	17.9	-32.8	12.6	-29.5	9.1	-27.7
7	Vermont.....	1.8	-7.7	1.5	-17.1	1.5	+1.1
8	Region II:						
	New York.....	344.6	-1.2	226.1	-34.4	161.6	-28.5
9	Region III:						
	Delaware.....	1.5	-15.7	1.4	-10.7	1.1	-21.1
10	New Jersey.....	52.4	-4.0	42.5	-18.8	31.6	-25.7
11	Pennsylvania.....	126.6	+4.1	109.7	-13.3	83.2	-24.2
	Region IV:						
12	District of Columbia.....	4.0	-2.5	4.4	+9.6	4.2	-3.8
13	Maryland.....	21.3	-7.9	15.7	-26.4	11.2	-28.8
14	North Carolina.....	32.2	+18.2	29.7	-7.9	21.6	-27.0
15	Virginia.....	24.8	-12.4	17.5	-29.1	11.7	-33.4
16	West Virginia.....	21.1	+4.5	15.2	-27.8	10.6	-30.5
	Region V:						
17	Kentucky.....	8.9	-1.9	10.5	+17.0	7.3	-30.5
18	Michigan.....	80.7	+55.2	109.2	+35.3	47.0	-57.0
19	Ohio.....	60.6	-5.7	53.2	-12.2	41.5	-22.0
	Region VI:						
20	Illinois.....	82.7	-14.2	59.5	-28.1	46.0	-22.7
21	Indiana.....	24.0	+14.0	23.4	-2.3	14.4	-38.4
22	Wisconsin.....	12.3	+19.6	12.0	-3.0	8.4	-29.5
	Region VII:						
23	Alabama.....	21.1	+8.1	20.6	-2.4	18.0	-12.4
24	Florida.....	23.6	+49.7	23.2	-2.0	20.7	-10.6
25	Georgia.....	21.8	+2.9	20.8	-4.6	17.2	-17.5
26	Mississippi.....	9.6	+11.0	10.6	+10.6	9.4	-11.0
27	South Carolina.....	11.9	+34.9	11.2	-5.1	8.6	-23.3
28	Tennessee.....	22.9	+8.3	21.7	-5.1	17.0	-21.6
	Region VIII:						
29	Iowa.....	8.4	-1.5	8.4	-	7.0	-16.8
30	Minnesota.....	15.2	-13.4	14.3	-6.2	12.0	-15.7
31	Nebraska.....	3.1	-4.2	3.3	+5.7	3.0	-7.4
32	North Dakota.....	1.2	-15.3	1.0	-20.1	.7	-24.0
33	South Dakota.....	1.2	-13.8	.9	-28.1	.7	-19.1
	Region IX:						
34	Arkansas.....	15.0	+7.4	12.7	-15.6	9.7	-23.5
35	Kansas.....	4.4	-14.3	4.6	+4.7	4.4	-5.3
36	Missouri.....	19.8	+8.7	21.2	+7.2	15.2	-28.2
37	Oklahoma.....	7.9	-9	8.0	+1.0	7.2	-10.0
	Region X:						
38	Louisiana.....	23.3	+8.3	22.1	-5.2	21.7	-1.7
39	New Mexico.....	3.0	+18.6	3.2	+5.6	2.7	-14.5
40	Texas.....	36.3	+5.0	34.7	-4.5	28.2	-18.8
	Region XI:						
41	Arizona.....	3.1	+8.4	3.2	+5.7	2.8	-13.2
42	Colorado.....	8.2	-6	7.1	-13.9	5.4	-24.0
43	Idaho.....	2.6	-10.7	2.5	-6.8	2.0	-18.1
44	Montana.....	4.3	-15.8	4.1	-5.0	3.6	-11.2
45	Utah.....	3.8	+118.7	4.3	+12.4	4.0	-5.8
46	Wyoming.....	1.1	-23.3	1.0	-6.7	.9	-16.3
	Region XII:						
47	California.....	80.1	+2.5	82.5	-7.3	73.8	-10.6
48	Nevada.....	1.4	-12.0	1.3	-5.6	1.3	-3.1
49	Oregon.....	6.0	+6.4	4.9	-19.0	3.9	-19.7
50	Washington.....	14.6	+2.1	10.8	-25.9	7.9	-26.6
	Territories:						
51	Alaska.....	1.9	+3.0	1.4	-24.9	1.2	-13.0
52	Hawaii.....	.4	-47.9	.4	+10.2	.7	+44.6

¹ Excludes claims for part-total unemployment. In some cases, where data for continued claims is not reported by type of unemployment, estimates are based on distribution of weeks compensated by type of unemployment.

by States, for Weeks Ending in July, August, and September 1940
corrected to Oct. 23, 1940]

Number (in thousands) for week ending—														Marginal number
July 6	July 13	July 20	July 27	Aug. 3	Aug. 10	Aug. 17	Aug. 24	Aug. 31	Sept. 7	Sept. 14	Sept. 21	Sept. 28		
1,327.8	1,541.8	1,444.1	1,407.9	1,349.2	1,293.1	1,217.9	1,145.4	1,054.4	987.6	938.3	862.4	820.5	1	
10.1	15.7	14.6	13.8	12.8	12.2	11.4	11.4	10.8	10.1	9.5	8.5	7.5	2	
12.9	12.9	11.7	11.0	9.7	8.7	8.6	7.2	6.3	6.6	6.1	5.5	5.3	3	
100.3	102.6	92.9	88.7	84.6	81.0	81.1	75.7	71.2	74.1	62.1	56.2	53.3	4	
5.8	5.8	4.7	4.2	4.0	3.8	3.3	3.3	2.9	3.4	3.1	3.1	2.9	5	
19.3	18.7	18.2	15.4	14.1	12.7	11.9	11.3	13.0	9.7	10.1	7.7	8.9	6	
1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.8	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.4	7	
345.8	365.3	339.5	327.8	277.5	242.5	218.1	201.1	191.2	169.3	166.4	158.3	152.4	8	
1.4	1.5	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	9	
52.0	55.0	52.6	49.9	47.6	46.9	44.2	38.0	36.0	34.9	32.1	29.5	29.9	10	
113.4	162.7	115.3	115.1	113.5	123.7	103.2	111.6	96.7	100.8	81.8	77.7	72.5	11	
4.0	3.9	4.1	4.0	4.7	4.1	4.4	4.5	4.2	4.3	4.5	3.9	4.2	12	
21.9	21.5	22.8	19.0	17.4	15.9	16.2	14.8	14.2	12.2	11.6	10.6	10.2	13	
21.9	39.8	34.6	32.5	31.0	31.1	29.3	28.6	28.3	21.0	26.1	20.4	19.1	14	
19.4	32.4	24.9	22.2	20.6	20.2	16.1	17.1	13.8	12.1	12.5	12.3	9.8	15	
20.3	21.3	21.4	21.3	21.1	15.6	14.2	12.9	12.3	11.4	10.8	10.4	9.8	16	
9.4	8.7	9.4	8.2	11.4	9.6	12.4	8.2	10.8	6.4	8.6	5.8	8.3	17	
60.7	60.4	93.2	108.5	125.8	119.9	122.6	101.6	76.1	59.8	50.8	42.7	34.6	18	
57.5	65.2	61.6	58.2	58.7	56.1	53.7	50.4	47.4	44.4	42.9	39.8	38.9	19	
79.6	94.5	82.9	73.8	69.8	63.5	58.1	53.4	52.4	47.5	51.8	43.1	41.4	20	
17.1	23.5	29.3	26.0	26.0	28.4	25.5	19.9	17.4	14.7	16.5	13.8	12.7	21	
11.2	13.4	12.6	12.0	11.8	12.7	12.3	11.9	11.1	10.2	9.1	7.6	6.9	22	
17.0	23.5	22.2	21.5	21.1	21.3	20.1	20.4	19.9	18.3	18.9	17.8	17.1	23	
18.7	26.8	24.1	24.9	23.9	24.3	22.7	23.5	21.4	23.0	20.2	20.6	19.0	24	
19.9	23.4	21.5	22.3	20.7	22.3	21.9	21.0	18.1	21.0	17.9	16.2	13.6	25	
8.3	9.6	10.0	10.4	10.3	10.1	10.9	11.0	10.6	10.4	10.1	9.1	8.2	26	
7.6	13.8	12.9	13.1	13.7	11.6	10.8	10.3	9.7	8.7	10.0	8.3	7.4	27	
19.2	24.6	22.5	25.3	21.2	25.2	21.5	21.9	18.9	19.0	17.9	17.1	14.1	28	
7.8	9.0	8.4	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.3	7.8	7.7	7.3	6.4	6.5	29	
13.0	17.7	15.3	14.8	15.0	14.9	14.4	13.9	13.2	12.7	12.4	11.8	11.2	30	
2.8	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.2	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.2	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1	31	
1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0	.9	.8	.8	.8	.7	.7	32	
1.2	1.4	1.1	1.0	.9	.9	.9	.9	.7	.8	.7	.7	.6	33	
13.9	16.5	15.3	14.3	13.2	12.7	12.6	11.9	13.0	9.1	11.0	9.5	9.1	34	
4.2	4.6	4.6	4.4	4.7	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.7	4.3	4.7	4.3	4.3	35	
16.4	20.0	20.5	22.3	22.8	21.6	22.2	20.7	19.0	17.4	15.6	14.5	13.4	36	
7.4	7.9	7.8	8.4	8.0	7.8	7.7	8.5	7.7	7.6	7.4	7.0	6.6	37	
18.9	25.4	24.1	24.7	24.0	23.4	24.0	23.4	15.4	27.3	21.2	20.2	18.0	38	
2.5	3.1	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.0	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.6	39	
35.6	37.0	36.7	36.0	36.7	35.6	34.2	33.3	33.8	30.5	28.6	27.3	26.3	40	
2.8	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.7	41	
7.7	8.7	8.3	8.2	7.8	7.8	7.0	6.5	6.3	5.9	5.4	5.4	4.9	42	
2.5	2.6	2.9	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.1	1.9	43	
3.9	4.6	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.1	3.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.5	3.6	44	
3.3	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.1	4.0	4.0	4.0	3.8	45	
.9	1.4	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	.8	1.1	.8	1.0	.8	.8	46	
85.4	94.8	89.9	86.2	86.5	85.5	82.7	80.5	77.6	73.0	74.2	72.6	75.4	47	
1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	48	
5.1	6.8	6.5	5.7	5.2	5.2	4.9	4.6	4.5	3.8	4.3	3.9	3.6	49	
11.3	15.8	16.2	15.0	12.8	12.0	11.1	9.5	8.6	8.2	8.2	7.9	7.4	50	
1.5	2.6	2.0	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.2	1.0	1.3	51	
.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.4	.5	.5	.6	.6	.5	1.0	52	

CANADIAN UNEMPLOYMENT-INSURANCE ACT, 1940

AN EMPLOYMENT and social-insurance law passed in Canada in 1935, which provided for compulsory unemployment insurance, was later declared unconstitutional, but an amendment to the British North America Act passed July 10, 1940, removed the constitutional barriers to the establishment of such a system. As a result an unemployment-insurance bill was introduced in the Canadian Parliament and became law on August 7, 1940.¹

It is estimated that the income of the fund in the first year of operation of the system will amount to about \$58,500,000, of which employers and employees will each contribute \$23,400,000 and Parliament \$9,700,000. The annual costs of administration are estimated at about \$5,250,000 and the number of persons covered in 1941, the first year in which benefits will be paid, will be about 2,100,000.

Coverage

The benefits of the system apply to all persons who are employed under a contract of service or apprenticeship, with the following exceptions: Workers in agriculture and forestry, fishing, lumbering and logging (except sawmills and other wood-processing plants which are considered continuous), transportation by air or water, stevedoring, private domestic service, public hospitals, and charitable institutions. Also excluded are teachers, civil-service employees, and members of the armed forces; and workers earning more than \$2,000 a year. Young persons under 16 years of age and workers earning less than 90 cents in a normal full day do not pay contributions and are not entitled to benefits but may accumulate benefit rights.

Contributions

Wage earners are divided into seven classes for the assessment of contributions and the payment of benefits. The first wage class includes those earning \$5.40 and less than \$7.50 per week, the wage classes increasing by \$2.10, \$2.40, \$3, \$5, and \$6 for the next five classes, to earnings of \$26 and less than \$38.50 in the seventh class. The employer's contribution amounts to 21 cents for the first wage class, 25 cents for the next three classes, and 27 cents for the three highest classes. The employer also pays 18 cents a week for persons earning less than 90 cents a day and young persons under the age of 16, plus 9 cents in lieu of contributions by such persons. Employed persons' contributions are 12, 15, 18, 21, 24, 30, and 36 cents for the seven wage groups. The daily rate in respect of each group is one-sixth of the weekly rate. Parliament adds a grant of one-fifth of the

¹ Report from Pierrepont Moffett, American Minister to Canada: The Unemployment Insurance Act—1940, Ottawa.

aggregate contributions by employers and employed persons and will pay the entire costs of administration.

Benefits

The weekly benefit for persons in the first wage class is \$4.08 for single persons and \$4.80 for persons with dependents. The benefit amounts rise by \$1.02 for single persons and \$1.20 for persons with dependents for each class up to the sixth class, and rise by \$2.04 and \$2.40, respectively, for the sixth and seventh classes. The maximum weekly benefit, therefore, is \$12.24 for single persons and \$14.40 for persons with dependents. These benefits are at the rate of 34 times the daily or weekly contributions of single persons and 40 times those of persons with dependents, and the rate of benefit for persons who have been in more than one wage class in the 2 years preceding unemployment is adjusted on this basis. The daily rate of benefit for a benefit year in respect of each class is one-sixth the weekly benefit rate.

Benefit is payable to qualified persons in any benefit year for a number of days equal to the difference between one-fifth of the number of days for which contributions have been paid during the 5 years preceding the benefit year for which the computation is made, and one-third of the number of days, if any, for which benefit has been paid in the 3 years preceding the benefit year.

Benefits are not payable for the first 9 days of unemployment in any benefit year, nor for the first day of unemployment in any calendar week (unless unemployment lasts for the whole of that week or immediately follows continuous unemployment of at least 1 full week).

After the benefit rights of an insured person are exhausted in any benefit year, he will not be entitled to benefits again until 60 days' contributions have been paid. A "benefit year" is the period of 12 months preceding the date of application for benefit. Special regulations may be made by the Commission covering the cases of persons who habitually work less than the full working week; persons whose employment is seasonal; and persons who are paid, in whole or in part, on a basis other than time.

Eligibility for Benefits

The benefit rights of insured persons are based on the payment of not less than 30 weekly or 180 daily contributions during the 2 years immediately preceding the date on which a claim for benefit is made. The other statutory conditions which must be fulfilled are proof of unemployment on each day for which unemployment benefit is claimed; proof that the insured person is capable of and available for work but unable to find suitable employment; and proof that he has duly attended, or had good cause for not attending, any course of in-

struction or training which he has been directed to attend by the Unemployment Insurance Commission. If an insured person can prove that during any period during the required 2 years he has been incapacitated for work by specific disease or disablement, or employed in any excepted employment, or engaged in business on his own account, the statutory 2 years will be increased by such periods up to a maximum of 4 years. Failure to accept an offer of employment at a lower rate of wages or on less favorable conditions than those observed by agreement between employers and employees or recognized by good employers, either in an insured person's usual occupation or in another occupation, is not considered as a disqualification for benefit, nor is refusal of an offer of employment as a result of a labor dispute. Also, an insured person may not be disqualified for benefit if by his acceptance of offered employment he would lose the right either to belong to a labor organization or to refrain from such membership.

Disqualification for Benefit

An insured person is disqualified for receiving benefit if he is unemployed because of a labor dispute at his place of work, unless he can show that he has become regularly employed elsewhere during the stoppage or that he is not participating in, nor financing, nor directly interested in the stoppage, and does not belong to a grade or class which is participating in or interested in the dispute. Refusal, without good cause, to accept or apply for a job which has been notified to an insured person by an employment office or other recognized agency or by an employer is reason for disqualification, as are, also, discharge for misconduct and imprisonment. An insured person is not entitled to benefit if more than one-half the number of contributions made in his behalf during the year immediately preceding the claim for benefit have been made at the lowest rate, that is, while under the age of 16 or while earning less than 90 cents a day. Discharge from employment because of membership in, or lawful activity connected with, any association, organization, or union of workers does not disqualify an insured person for benefit.

Administration

The unemployment-insurance law is administered by an Unemployment Insurance Commission of three members appointed by the Governor in Council. The term of office of the chief commissioner is 10 years and of the other commissioners, 5 years. One of the latter two commissioners is appointed after consultation with organizations representative of workers, and the other after consultation with those representative of employers.

An Unemployment Insurance Advisory Committee consisting of a chairman and not less than four nor more than six members is to

make such studies and investigations in regard to the operation of the act as the Commission may direct and is required to report annually on the financial condition of the fund.

In each regional division an insurance officer will have charge of claims for benefit and a court of referees representing employers and insured persons will have jurisdiction over appeals by claimants for benefit from the decisions of the insurance officer. A court of referees will have one or more members representing employers, an equal number representing employed persons, and a chairman appointed by the Governor in Council.

Employment Service

The law provides for the organization and maintenance of an employment service for the Dominion. Employment offices will be established in each regional division and the regional office will be the clearing house for the distribution of information regarding employment opportunities. These services will be coordinated under the Commission, and a National Employment Committee and regional and local committees representing employers and insured persons will advise and assist the Commission in carrying out the purposes of the employment service.

Housing Conditions

SLIDING-SCALE RENTAL CHARGES IN PUBLIC HOUSING

A SLIDING-SCALE system, whereby rents are graded to take into account variations in incomes of tenants, has been adopted for the Fort Dupont Dwellings project of the Alley Dwelling Authority for the District of Columbia.¹ Approval of the plan was given by the United States Housing Authority on October 17, 1940.

In fixing rents, the Alley Dwelling Authority is obliged to take into account the cost of the project and the amount of subsidy afforded by the United States Housing Authority's annual contribution and the District of Columbia tax exemption. The highest future rent that may be charged, known as the economic rent, is a sum sufficient to cover all costs allocated to the housing unit, including interest, amortization, and city taxes, as well as operation. However, no family may be charged an amount that would yield a profit on its dwelling. Heat, hot and cold water, electricity and gas for cooking, are included in the charge, and the economic rent is as follows for units of different sizes:

	<i>Monthly economic rent</i>
6-room house.....	\$39. 00
5-room house.....	37. 50
4-room apartment.....	36. 00
3-room apartment.....	34. 50
2-room apartment.....	33. 00

Provision is made for lowering rents according to family income, deficits, as already stated, being made up by subsidy. The lowest subsidized monthly rent practicable in the District of Columbia under the terms of the United States Housing Act is \$11. From this basic level, rent increases are graduated on a fixed schedule by increments of \$1, \$1.50, or \$2 a month for each \$5 increase in income, until the family income warrants payment of an economic rent.

Families admitted to the project at the start were limited to those with incomes of not more than \$1,320, if they had fewer than 3 minor dependents, or \$1,584 where such dependents numbered three or more. For families meeting these requirements, the maximum rents established range from \$27 to \$33, depending upon the size of the dwelling

¹ District of Columbia. Alley Dwelling Authority. Press releases, Washington, September 5 and October 17, 1940.

unit. Tenants whose incomes rise will have their rents raised until, when the income reaches \$1,441, an economic rent will be paid—unless there are 3 or more dependents, in which case the economic rent may not be charged until the annual income totals \$1,584.

It was decided to allocate 45 percent of the units to families whose incomes ranged from \$1,201 to \$1,320; 35 percent to those having \$901 to \$1,200; and 20 percent to families with incomes of \$600 to \$900 a year. This weighting was chosen in order to insure that the rent plus subsidy would yield the required revenue for the entire property, at the same time permitting movement of families from one income group to another without creating disequilibrium.

The plan adopted might be carried to a point where subsidized rents reached an extremely low level, if it were not for two requirements of the Federal housing law: (1) Revenue from rents must be sufficient to pay operation costs; and (2) family income may not exceed 5 times the rent, or, for large families having 3 or more minor dependents, 6 times the rent.

In establishing graded rentals, the purpose of the Alley Dwelling Authority is to enable families who cannot afford to rent dwellings from private owners to obtain sanitary, safe, and decent homes. Families down to and including those who are currently paying the lowest rents for unfit houses are being served. To meet emergencies, a reserve fund has also been created from which rents of individual families may be paid for short periods in time of misfortune.

Except for employees of the Alley Dwelling Authority, tenants will move out of the project when their income exceeds the amount which enables them to pay an economic rent. The move will, however, be required only when an adequate supply of housing has been furnished by private enterprise at rents equal to not more than one-fourth of these tenants' incomes, excluding utilities. This provision applies if the income is \$1,584 for families having less than 3 minor dependents, or \$1,980 for families with 3 or more dependents.

No minimum income limit is fixed for families applying for admission to the project. Each case is considered on its merits, and the Alley Dwelling Authority makes sure that the income is sufficient to provide for other necessities after the rent is paid. Only natural families or cohesive family groups are accepted. Unless the President determines that there is an acute housing shortage impeding the national defense program, and that the necessary housing will not be provided otherwise, families who have not resided in the District of Columbia for at least two years will be excluded; and not more than 100 families who receive part or all of their net income from any one source (private or public) will be accepted. Families will not be admitted if the family head is not a citizen of the United States or has not received his or her first papers of citizenship.

DEFENSE HOUSING PROGRAM—TWENTIETH CENTURY FUND

HOUSING should be treated as an integral part of defense in a program stimulating and coordinating public and private enterprise, according to the conclusions reached in a survey by the Housing Committee of the Twentieth Century Fund, the results of which were published recently.¹ This organization began a study of the housing situation in the United States in March 1940, but when it became evident in May that there was to be a vast program of national defense, the broader investigation was postponed in order to prepare an emergency report on housing as related to national defense. A committee of specialists was appointed to take general charge and to draw up a constructive program. The work was done with the knowledge and interest of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense, and assistance was acknowledged from Federal officials and former officials of the housing agencies created in 1917-18.

The members of the committee were as follows: Henry E. Hoagland, chairman, Ohio State University; Lillian M. Gilbreth, Purdue University; Frank P. Graham, University of North Carolina; Henry I. Harriman, former president, Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Arthur C. Holden, vice president, New York Building Congress; John A. Lapp, former national referee, International Building Trades Unions; and William I. Myers, Cornell University.

In its proposals the Housing Committee did not confine itself to objectives which could be achieved quickly. The assumption was that the defense needs of the country will continue over a number of years, and therefore long-term considerations as well as immediate necessities should be considered.

In the last war, armament production was hampered by overtaxed transportation facilities, labor unrest, and housing shortages arising from concentration of industrial and military activities in a restricted number of centers.

Recommendations

To reduce the hazards of concentration, the Committee recommends that the Federal Government adopt and adhere to a policy of selective location of industrial activity through care in placing contracts. Defense materials can be manufactured in communities that are suitable from a military and industrial standpoint and where new housing needs are at a minimum. Labor required for construction and for plant operation after completion are important.

¹ Twentieth Century Fund. Housing Committee. *Housing for Defense: A Review of the Role of Housing in Relation to America's Defense and a Program for Action*. New York, 1940.

LOCATION

The Committee recommends prompt selection of appropriate regions. An inventory of plant capacity is necessary to reveal the full extent of industrial resources. Surveys of the processes of the various defense industries should be made under the direction of appropriate Federal agencies and should show the availability of labor for various skilled operations, the optimum size of plant, the possibilities of decentralization of processes, and the factors influencing the location of particular manufacturing operations.

In districts that for other reasons are desirable for defense-industry expansion, analysis is recommended to show the conditions and potentialities of housing and house construction, to establish the basis of final selection as between communities, to determine the extent and character of housing needs, and to suggest the means of meeting the existing needs.

As a general principle, defense industry should be located in existing communities. This would insure the fullest utilization of available resources in government, education, fire and police protection, streets, utilities, and transportation systems, before building extensions. To insure that all existing housing is occupied, the following four measures are suggested:

1. A registry service for vacant dwellings and rooms.
2. Local campaigns to encourage householders to make vacant rooms available.
3. Repair and conversion campaigns.
4. Stimulation of the development of additional transit facilities to insure full advantage being taken of the widest possible commuting area.

RENT CONTROL

Although the Committee is fully aware of the need for preventing high rents resulting from a housing shortage, it is opposed to arbitrary rent control especially on privately owned properties. As a general policy, rent control on privately owned dwellings should be imposed only as a last resort, where a sufficient supply of reasonably priced housing cannot be provided. To avoid the need for control, existing vacancies should be used and housing activity stimulated by building, repair, and conversion (such as dividing large houses into smaller units). Other means of avoiding legislative controls include efforts to bring about voluntary acceptance of reasonable rental scales; denial of registry privileges to owners charging excessive rentals; and selection of alternative locations for defense activities where other factors permit a choice for further expansion.

Should rent control become necessary, the Committee suggests that the Federal Government be prepared to offer model legislation for enactment by the States and municipalities.

INCREASING HOUSE BUILDING

In an emergency housing program the necessity for freeing house building from arbitrary restraints and for increasing the flexibility of its operations is of major importance. Local monopolies and "rackets," and labor and material shortages, must be removed. Every effort should now be made to advance the general stage of technology in the industry, to improve its efficiency and capacity, to encourage enterprise which tends to further efficient production, and to cooperate in the elimination of the wastes for which the building industry has been notorious. It is felt that understanding of these purposes by the Federal and local governments is vital to organization for national defense.

The Federal Government should encourage housing of simple design and average durability; the use of materials which are least competitive with defense industries; and simplified and standardized methods of construction which reduce labor and material waste, conserve the amount of skilled labor needed, and cut down the time consumed in construction.

Research by the two governmental laboratories—the National Bureau of Standards and the Forest Products Laboratory—should be extended to include materials, equipment, and structural methods for low-priced houses. The report urges the widest possible dissemination of the research results. Such a research program should be speeded by utilizing the facilities of universities, private laboratories, and technical societies now engaged in this field of work.

Funds for preparation of a model building code should be made available to the National Bureau of Standards. To assure maintenance of standards in building defense housing, the Committee recommends the establishment of county building agencies and issuance of permits for construction in unincorporated areas, the regulations to be based on the model building code. Efforts should be encouraged to eradicate arbitrary restraints and illicit agreements adopted for the purpose of maintaining costs and local monopolies. This has particular application in areas where defense activity involving construction is centered.

PRIVATE ENTERPRISE

The extent to which normal processes of house building may be utilized in defense areas will depend upon the alertness to special emergency demands and attention given to the housing problem by manufacturers and builders. The Federal Government should adopt the policy of encouraging the continuance of private building and aid in remedying any weaknesses that may appear in the system of private enterprise. Direct participation in the housing field on the part of the Government, the Committee feels, should be avoided as far as is practicable.

As a means of avoiding confusion and preventing fear on the part of private operators, the Committee recommends that all information on the defense program as it affects housing be made known. A policy should be formulated concerning the forms of assistance to be provided for private operators and the methods and extent of supplementation or displacement of private operations to be considered.

The Federal Housing Administration and the Federal Home Loan Bank Board should be permitted to operate on a liberalized basis.

GOVERNMENT PARTICIPATION

In areas where concentration of defense activity threatens future stability and private investment may not be made with safety—that is, where lenders are unwilling to advance mortgage funds with or without the protection of the Federal Housing Administration—a plan is outlined whereby the RFC Mortgage Company would make first-mortgage loans on small houses erected subject to the provisions of section 2 (title 1) of the National Housing Act and also make loans on new house construction to meet the needs of defense workers. It is further recommended that the Federal National Mortgage Association or the RFC Mortgage Company make loans on rental housing properties suitable for defense workers, also subject to the provisions of the National Housing Act. In case of continued reluctance on the part of private investors these loans could be made by the RFC without regard to FHA insurance. In cases of special need the RFC might participate in making intermediate loans on rental properties under a carefully worked out plan.

Repair and conversion of suitable foreclosed properties by the Home Owners' Loan Corporation is recommended. Foreclosed properties should be rented or sold as quickly as possible, and funds advanced to mortgagors where the properties can be remodeled to accommodate a greater number of defense workers.

Where housing is required for defense workers having incomes below the level for which housing may be produced with the aids described above and in other situations of extreme urgency, the Committee recommends that the Federal Government participate directly. For this purpose the use of existing administrative agencies rather than specially created bodies is advocated.

The Committee further recommends that the United States Housing Authority should be confined to its original program of aiding local authorities in providing housing for families whose incomes place them clearly beyond the reach of other methods and that it concentrate its work in communities of high defense activity where a housing need is likely to exist after the emergency.

COORDINATION

Establishment of the office of Defense Housing Coordinator, functioning as a division of the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense is described in the report as a recognition of the importance of housing in the defense program and the need for centralized direction. A clearer definition of the duties and responsibilities of the Coordinator is urged, as well as the organization of a coordinating committee to select locations of industrial activity. This committee should maintain a liaison with the War and Navy Departments. A second committee or subcommittee is also recommended, which would deal with different kinds of defense construction, including housing, to insure coordination of activities.

GENERAL POLICIES

The Housing Committee of the Twentieth Century Fund states that its purpose was to formulate a policy in line with American traditions of private initiative and individual effort. Coordination "refers not alone to the harmonious cooperation between governmental bureaus but to the effective stimulation of industrial initiative." Both industry and Government must assume responsibility for initiative and take steps to insure coordination. To determine housing needs basic data are required from the Government, producers, and localities. A coordinating officer acting on behalf of the Government can facilitate the necessary exchange.

As a guide the Federal Government should differentiate between areas, noting established defense areas, those offering industrial advantages, manpower and housing facilities, and virgin areas which are comparatively nonindustrial and suitable for development.

Industrial Health and Safety

INDUSTRIAL INJURIES IN MINING AND QUARRYING, 1930-39

DURING 1939 about 1,300 workers were killed and 77,000 injured nonfatally in the mining industries of the United States. Fully 80 percent of all fatalities and nearly 75 percent of all nonfatal injuries occurred in coal mining, which also accounted for 72 percent of the employment and nearly 63 percent of the employee-hours of exposure. Expressed in frequency rates, coal mining had 85.1 disabling injuries per million employee-hours worked, and mining other than coal, 69.8. Of the latter class of mines, metal mining experienced a rate of 72.8, and nonmetal mines a rate of only 38.7. Even the low rate in the nonmetal mines, however, is substantially above the rates for most manufacturing industries.

Coal Mining

The disabling-injury rate of 85.1 for coal mining in 1939 is the lowest since 1930, with the single exception of 1938 when it was 84.4. As is apparent from table 1, there has been a fairly steady decrease in the frequency rate since 1930, when the rate stood at 105.6. Most of this decrease, however, has occurred in the nonfatal injuries. There has been little change in the fatality rate since 1931.

The mining of anthracite has been consistently more hazardous than the mining of bituminous coal. Against a frequency rate of 75.8 in 1939 for bituminous mining, anthracite mining had a rate of 127.3—almost two-thirds again as high. With the exception of 1938, the 1939 rate for bituminous coal is the lowest since 1930. But the anthracite rate of 127.3 for 1939, almost the same as for 1938, exceeds that of any other year since 1931 when it stood at 128.4.

Detailed data for 1939 were not available at the time this report was prepared (November 1940). Data for 1938 indicate that disabling injuries occurred about twice as frequently (i. e. per million employee-hours worked) in underground mining as in open-cut mining, and nearly three times as frequently as in dredge and surface mining.

TABLE 1.—Frequency Rates for Disabling Injuries in Coal Mining, 1930-39¹

Year	Total			Bituminous coal			Pennsylvania anthracite		
	All in-juries	Fatal	Non-fatal	All in-juries	Fatal	Non-fatal	All in-juries	Fatal	Non-fatal
1930.....	105.6	2.1	103.5	97.1	2.2	94.9	130.9	1.8	129.1
1931.....	101.7	1.8	99.9	92.4	1.8	90.6	128.4	1.8	126.6
1932.....	94.6	1.9	92.7	84.1	2.0	82.1	129.6	1.6	128.0
1933.....	86.7	1.5	85.2	79.3	1.5	77.8	113.7	1.5	112.2
1934.....	90.0	1.6	88.4	81.1	1.6	79.5	119.4	1.5	117.9
1935.....	91.2	1.7	89.5	83.8	1.7	82.1	118.9	1.8	117.1
1936.....	85.8	1.6	84.2	77.0	1.6	75.4	123.4	1.6	121.8
1937.....	85.8	1.7	84.1	80.0	1.8	78.2	115.2	1.6	113.6
1938.....	84.4	1.8	82.6	74.5	1.7	72.8	127.2	1.9	125.3
1939 ²	85.1	1.6	83.5	75.8	1.6	74.2	127.3	1.7	125.6

¹ Computed from U. S. Bureau of Mines data.² Preliminary figures.

Of the 1,153 fatalities and permanent total disabilities, 922 occurred in bituminous-coal and 231 in anthracite mining. In the group of permanent partial disabilities, however, anthracite accounted for only 84 and bituminous coal for 1,476. Expressed in terms of disability ratios, bituminous-coal mining had 24 fatalities or permanent total disabilities per 1,000 injuries as against 16 for anthracite mining; but it had 39 permanent partial disabilities for only 6 in anthracite mining.

The predominant cause of fatalities in 1938 was falls of roofs, accounting for fully half of all deaths. Mine cars and locomotives, however, were the leading cause of nonfatal injuries (20 percent). Falls of face or rib, hand tools, and machinery also produced a considerable proportion of the nonfatal injuries.

Mining Other Than Coal

Mining other than coal accounted in 1939 for about 70 disabling injuries per million hours worked. This represents about the same experience as for 1938, but a considerable reduction from the rates of 76 and 73 for 1937 and 1936, respectively. The 1939 rate is considerably above those for 1931 and 1932, however. As in the case of

TABLE 2.—Frequency Rates for Disabling Injuries in Mining Other Than Coal, 1931-39¹

Year	Total			Metal			Nonmetal		
	All in-juries	Fatal	Non-fatal	All in-juries	Fatal	Non-fatal	All in-juries	Fatal	Non-fatal
1931.....	56.8	1.0	55.8	58.0	1.1	56.9	47.5	0.6	46.9
1932.....	55.7	1.2	54.5	57.1	1.2	55.9	45.3	.6	44.7
1933.....	63.9	1.0	62.9	65.8	1.1	64.7	53.3	.6	52.7
1934.....	69.0	1.0	68.0	71.5	1.1	70.4	52.3	.5	51.8
1935.....	64.3	1.0	63.3	65.8	1.1	64.7	50.7	.4	50.3
1936.....	73.4	1.0	72.4	76.4	1.1	75.3	48.6	.2	48.4
1937.....	76.3	.9	75.4	78.8	.9	77.9	48.7	.6	48.1
1938.....	68.4	.8	67.6	71.3	.9	70.4	41.0	.3	40.7
1939 ²	69.8	.9	68.9	72.8	.9	71.9	38.7	.7	38.0

¹ Computed from U. S. Bureau of Mines data.² Preliminary figures.

coal mining, there is no discernible trend in the frequency of fatal injuries. The nonfatal injury frequency rate increased fairly steadily from 1931 to 1937, at which time it had increased by nearly a third. Since then, as already indicated, it has dropped somewhat.

As is apparent from table 2, the experience of metal mines has become worse since 1931, whereas that for nonmetal mines has improved. The lowest frequency rates for metal mines were 58.0 and 57.1 in 1931 and 1932. Since then the frequency rate reached a peak of 78.8 in 1937, declining to 72.8 in 1939.

On the other hand, the 1939 frequency rate of 38.7 for nonmetal mining is the lowest since 1931 (when it stood at 47.5) and considerably below the maximum rate of 53.3 in 1933. The movement of rates for successive years since 1933 has been persistently downward.

Lode mines producing gold and silver had the highest frequency rate in 1938—110.7. Gold placer mines had a rate of only 29.3. Copper mines had a rate of 61.3 and lead and zinc mines 58.8. The lowest rate in the group, 16.7, was for iron mines.

Of the 121 fatalities occurring underground in mines other than coal during 1938, about half were caused by rock or ore falling from roof or wall. This same cause was also responsible for more than a quarter of all permanent impairments and about 20 percent of all temporary disabilities. Haulage ranked second as a fatality cause, with 44 deaths, and was also one of the outstanding causes of temporary disabilities. Another operation involving a considerable number of

TABLE 3.—Summary of Injury Experience in Mining Other Than Coal, by Kind of Mine, 1938¹

Kind of mine	Number of employees	Em- ployee- hours (thou- sands)	Number of disabling injuries			Disability distri- bution per 1,000 injuries			Frequency rate			
			Total	Resulting in—			Death and per- manent total dis- ability	Perma- nent partial disabili- ty	Tempo- rary total dis- ability	All in- juries	Fata- l	Non- fatal
				Death and per- manent total dis- ability	Perma- nent partial disabili- ty	Tempo- rary total dis- ability						
All mines.....	103, 000	188, 170	12, 878	(8) 164	367	12, 347	13	28	959	68. 4	0. 8	67. 6
Copper.....	17, 600	34, 630	2, 122	24	76	2, 022	11	36	953	61. 3	. 7	60. 6
Iron.....	18, 000	28, 515	476	(2) 22	44	410	46	92	862	16. 7	. 7	16. 0
Lead and zinc.....	6, 400	10, 595	623	15	33	575	24	53	923	58. 8	1. 4	57. 4
Gold, silver, and miscel- laneous.....	51, 500	96, 602	8, 925	(6) 97	190	8, 638	11	21	968	92. 3	. 9	91. 4
Gold, silver (lode)....	36, 200	71, 796	7, 944	(6) 84	173	7, 687	11	22	967	110. 7	1. 1	109. 6
Gold (placer).....	11, 300	16, 967	498	2	10	486	4	20	976	29. 3	. 1	29. 2
Miscellaneous.....	4, 000	7, 839	483	11	7	465	23	14	963	61. 6	1. 4	60. 2
Nonmetal.....	9, 500	17, 827	732	6	24	702	8	33	959	41. 0	. 3	40. 7

¹ Computed from U. S. Bureau of Mines data.

² Figures in parentheses show the number of permanent total-disability cases included.

injuries was drilling. The frequency rate for underground operations, 93, was more than three times as high as the rates for open-cut and surface mining, which were 32 and 31, respectively.

Quarries

The frequency rate for disabling injuries in quarry operations has not changed appreciably during the period from 1931 to 1939. The preliminary rate for 1939 of 37.0 is somewhat lower than that of 38.2 for 1938, but the 1938 rate, in turn, was about the same as the rates for 1935 and 1932.

TABLE 4.—Frequency Rates for Disabling Injuries in Quarries, 1931–39¹

Year	Total	Fatal	Nonfatal
1931.....	41.1	0.5	40.6
1932.....	38.4	.3	38.1
1933.....	42.1	.7	41.4
1934.....	41.8	.6	41.2
1935.....	38.2	.5	37.7
1936.....	39.5	.6	38.9
1937.....	40.6	.5	40.1
1938.....	38.2	.6	37.6
1939 ²	37.0	.3	36.7

¹ Computed from U. S. Bureau of Mines data.

² Preliminary figures.

The fatality frequency rate varied from 0.3 in 1939 and 1932 to 0.7 in 1933. It shows no definite trend, nor does the nonfatality frequency rate, which varied from a low of 36.7 in 1939 to a 41.4 in 1933.

TABLE 5.—Summary of Injury Experience in Quarries, 1937¹

Kind of quarry	Number of employees	Employee-hours (thousands)	Number of disabling injuries				Disability distribution per 1,000 injuries			Frequency rate			
			Total	Resulting in—			Death and permanent total disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability	All injuries	Fatal	Non-fatal	
				Death and permanent total ² disability	Permanent partial disability	Temporary total disability							
All quarries.....	84,100	158,209	6,425	(4)	81	173	6,171	13	27	960	40.6	0.5	40.1
Cement rock.....	27,200	56,109	683	(1)	24	38	621	35	56	909	12.2	.4	11.8
Granite.....	9,000	16,083	869		7	30	832	8	35	957	54.0	.4	53.6
Limestone ¹	24,800	40,720	2,196	(1)	24	53	2,119	11	24	965	54.0	.6	53.4
Limestone (chief product, lime).....	10,400	22,486	1,229	(1)	11	25	1,193	9	20	971	54.6	.4	54.2
Marble.....	3,600	6,874	350		0	6	344	0	17	983	50.9	.0	50.9
Sandstone.....	3,200	5,511	415	(1)	5	8	402	12	19	969	75.3	.7	74.6
Slate.....	3,100	6,042	344		6	5	333	17	15	968	56.9	1.0	55.9
Trap rock.....	2,800	4,474	339		4	8	327	12	24	964	75.8	.9	74.9

¹ Computed from Bureau of Mines data.

² Figures in parentheses show the number of permanent total disability cases included.

³ Excludes quarries and mills whose product is used chiefly for the manufacture of cement or lime.

Most hazardous in 1937, as indicated by a frequency rate of over 75, was the quarrying of sandstone and trap rock. Nearly on the same level were the frequency rates for the quarrying of granite, limestone, marble, and slate, with rates ranging from about 51 to 57.



SICKNESS AND MEDICAL CARE IN A COAL-MINING AREA IN ARKANSAS

THE manner in which the residents in a typical coal-mining area in Arkansas had endeavored to meet the problem of obtaining medical services, and the extent of sickness prevailing among various occupational groups, were the subjects of a study¹ by the Agricultural Experiment Station of the University of Arkansas. The methods frequently adopted for meeting the costs of medical care among industrial populations include the company-doctor system, developed by employers; cooperative medical care and cooperative hospital associations, developed by employees; and commercial medical-care protective associations, in which membership is sold to workers, which have been developed by businessmen. The third type of association was found to be the most prevalent among the group studied. In addition, the members of the group used the services of private practitioners and there was a large amount of self-prescription of drugs and home medication. The study covered the amount and kinds of sickness prevalent in the families, the availability of medical service, the type of medical service utilized, the cost of medical service, and the effect of income, location, and occupational status on the use of medical service.

The area selected for the study was a coal-mining area of about 50 square miles having a population of about 1,200 persons and centering in Midland, a town of about 500 people. The residents of the town are largely engaged in coal mining or in enterprises serving the miners, while farmers, farm laborers, and timber workers live on the farm lands surrounding the mining villages and town. Information was obtained from the 307 families covered by a house-to-house survey, from records of the State bureau of vital statistics, and from persons professionally connected with health services in the area. The data were collected from November 1937 to March 1938, for the 12 months preceding the date they were taken, with the exception of deaths which covered the preceding 5-year period. Altogether, 1,189 persons were included in the survey.

The community had no resident doctor, but for 6 months of the period covered by the survey, a doctor from an adjoining town had had an office practice there for 2 days a week. In general, the residents of

¹ University of Arkansas. College of Agriculture. Sickness and Medical Care Among a Rural Bituminous Coal Mining Population of Arkansas, by Isabella C. Wilson. Fayetteville, 1940.

the community used the services of doctors and dentists in towns within an area of from 6 to 22 miles from Midland. There were four hospitals for white persons in Fort Smith, 22 miles distant, and, connected with the county farm, a tuberculosis hospital, and free maternity wards for indigent white and Negro mothers.

Sickness Experience

The death rate for the county in which Midland is situated averaged 11.8 per thousand persons in the 8-year period 1928-35, as compared with 9.6 for the State.

There were 2,009 illnesses during the preceding 12 months among the 1,189 persons living in the Midland community, or an average of 1.7 diseases per person per year and 6.5 per family. The total time lost because of sickness was 13,686 days, or a per capita average of 11.5 days and a family average of 44.6 days. The highest proportion of illnesses occurred in January and November.

Colds, with 836 cases, represented 41 percent of all sicknesses, while the remaining most common illnesses in the order of their importance were kidney and bladder trouble, malaria, rheumatism, influenza, and accidents. The greatest amount of lost time was occasioned by accidents, cancer, influenza, kidney and bladder trouble, tuberculosis, and stomach ailments.

The group covered in the survey had a larger number of aged persons than the average for the State or for the United States. This was due to the fact that many of the younger miners had migrated to other mining and manufacturing areas, while some of the young women had gone to adjoining towns to work as domestics, factory workers, and clerks.

The incidence of disease was relatively high for all age groups in the area studied and was greatly in excess of that of every age group in the populations previously studied in two other areas of the State. For persons over the age of 40 illnesses averaged more than 2 per person. Females had higher rates than males, at the ages of 15 to 34, 40 to 44, and 65 years and over.

Cost and Type of Medical Care

The 307 families expended \$11,850 for all medical services, an average expenditure of \$38.60 per family and \$9.96 per person. The cost of chronic illness represented almost 20 percent of all expenditures. Of the total health expenditure, 32.0 percent was spent for the services of physicians, 22.8 percent for dues to medical-care protective associations, 15.7 percent for unprescribed medicines, 9.1 percent for prescribed medicines, 6.4 percent for individually purchased hospital care, 4.8 percent for dental care, 2.5 percent for hired help during

sickness, 3.3 percent for transportation, 0.7 percent for oculists, 0.6 percent for chiropractors, 0.03 percent for midwives, and 2.2 percent for all other medical services.

The services of physicians were used by 67.4 percent of the families; dentists, by 11.4 percent; chiropractors, by 1 percent; medical-care associations, by 36.5 percent; other hospital services, by 5.5 percent; oculists, by 2.9 percent; and midwives, by 0.3 percent.

Unprescribed medicines were purchased by practically all the families; prescribed medicines by 33.8 percent; herb medicines were used by 6.2 percent; 12.3 percent used home-made remedies; and 2 percent reported the practice of faith healing.

Illness According to Income Levels and Occupations

A close relation between income and state of health, number of illnesses, and duration and type of illness, was shown by a classification of the families according to economic levels. The higher-income families had better health, fewer sicknesses, and fewer days of sickness per year than those with lower incomes. They also had a higher percentage of professional attention and spent more per family for medical care, prescribed medicines, and dental care; but in spite of their better professional care they spent only one-third as much of their cash income for medical care as did those in the lowest income level.

The average gross cash income of the 307 families studied was \$544.45; one-half had cash incomes of less than \$462.50; one-fourth had incomes of less than \$293.50; and three-fourths had incomes of less than \$670. The range of incomes among the group was from \$30.48 to \$4,000.

The surveyed families were divided into six groups according to the occupation of the head of the family: Professional workers, skilled laborers, and tradespersons; miners; farmers; WPA workers; dependents, that is, persons on relief, widows and children, and aged, crippled, and blind persons; and laborers. Forty-seven percent of the heads of families were miners; 16 percent, WPA workers; 15 percent, professional workers, skilled laborers, and tradespeople; 9 percent depended to some extent on relief; 7 percent, farmers; and 6 percent, laborers, mainly timber workers.

The highest number of illnesses per capita was found among the families of farmers and those on relief and the lowest in the families of professional workers, skilled laborers, and tradespersons. Dependent families spent almost 10 percent of their cash income on medical care, while professional workers, skilled laborers, and tradespersons spent only 5.3 percent. Miners spent more per family per year for medical care than any other type of family in the same income group.

To a considerable extent, this was because they spent more for dues to medical-care protective associations, as seven-eighths of the 112 families subscribing to such associations were mine employees or operators.

A large proportion of the families surveyed were in debt for medical care. This indebtedness was greatest among WPA workers' families and laborers, about 80 percent of these groups owing for medical care. About 60 percent of the farm families and the miners' families, 44 percent of the professional workers, skilled laborers, and trades persons, and 36 percent of the families dependent on relief were also in debt for medical care or services.

Small-Claims Courts

WORK OF DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA SMALL-CLAIMS COURT, 1939

MORE than 22,000 cases were filed in 1939 in the Small-Claims Court of the District of Columbia. That court, established in April 1938,¹ is known officially as the Small-Claims and Conciliation Branch of the Municipal Court. Since its creation the court has operated with outstanding success and has enabled wage earners and other persons of limited means to collect legal debts without incurring large expenses or long delays in the adjudication of their claims. The system adopted in the District of Columbia is, in many respects, more far-reaching and inclusive than those in other jurisdictions, particularly with respect to the combination of small-claims, conciliation, and arbitration procedure.

About 25 years ago, the first small-claims court was established in Cleveland, Ohio, and simultaneously Kansas created a system of "small debtors courts." By 1921 small-claims courts had been established in 5 States and also in the cities of Chicago and Philadelphia. At the present time 18 States² have provided such courts. In Michigan, while there are no small-claims courts operating, the State has created a special procedure for staying execution pending installment payment of judgments. Recently a peoples' court has been established in Baltimore, Md., and the State legislature may create similar courts in other cities or counties.

The plans under which the small-claims courts operate throughout the country vary in detail, but the basic features and purposes are somewhat similar.³ In general, they seek to provide a friendly forum where a person of limited means may present his claim or defense.

The Small-Claims Court in 1939

The District of Columbia law limits the jurisdiction of the small-claims court to amounts up to \$50, except that the benefits of arbitration and conciliation are available in all disputes of whatever character,

¹ Supp. V to D. C. Code, 1929, title 18, ch. 5A.

² California, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nevada, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Washington.

³ For previous articles on small-claims courts in general and that of the District of Columbia in particular see *Monthly Labor Review*, issues of August 1939 (p. 269) and January 1940 (p. 16), and Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 607.

regardless of the amount involved. As a result of this latter provision, 23 cases were submitted to the judge of the court for conciliation in 1939; in addition, 2 cases were submitted for arbitration, 1 of which involved a contest over a closed shop, between a local gas company with 1,200 employees and the union.

The procedure in the District of Columbia provides that a person who desires to secure the payment of a debt or adjust a dispute through the small-claims court must first file a clear and concise statement of his claim. If necessary, the clerk of the court will prepare the papers for him. The fee for serving the papers is nominal, and even this sum may be waived by the judge if the person bringing the claim cannot afford to pay it. Thus, in 1939, the clerk prepared the original papers in over 2,200 cases, which constituted about 10 percent of the claims filed. Costs were waived for 451 individuals who were unable to deposit costs.

After the claim has been properly filed, the defendant is notified by registered mail or by the United States Marshal. The notice describes the nature and amount of the claim against him and fixes the time for a hearing, which must be not less than 5 days nor more than 15 days from the date of filing the claim. The defendant may appear at the hearing with or without an attorney and present witnesses and records pertinent to the case. The judge may undertake to settle the case with the consent of all parties. Failure to bring the parties to a mutually acceptable agreement through a frank discussion is followed by the regular small-claims court procedure. In 1939, 247 cases were settled by the judge without a trial, and more than 1,600 cases were settled and dismissed by the parties themselves before the cases ever reached the courtroom.

An individual required by the small-claims court to pay a claim may request the court to examine his financial status. If it is found that he cannot pay the entire amount at one time, the court is authorized (except in wage-claim cases) to postpone the execution of the judgment and permit partial payments in certain stipulated amounts over a period of time. Thus, in 1939 installment payment of judgments was permitted in 2,714 cases, and of these 856, or 31 percent, were vacated for failure of the defendant to keep up his payments. In the case of wage claims, or claims for personal services, installment payment of judgments cannot be authorized by the judge.

The second annual report of the District of Columbia Small-Claims Court, covering the period from January 1, 1939, to December 30, 1939, indicates that an increasing number of persons are utilizing the services of this court. More than 22,000 cases were filed during the year and these constituted 67 percent of all debt actions filed in the municipal court (in which the maximum jurisdiction is \$1,000). Over 1,900 contested trials were held, or more than 8 times the number

of trials accorded to litigants in this same class of cases in the year prior to the establishment of the small-claims court in 1938. The total amount of claims filed exceeded \$500,000, with the average claim involving about \$24. Fees totaling nearly \$30,000 were paid into the clerk's office, indicating that the small-claims court is self-supporting.

The experience under the District of Columbia small-claims law shows that the adoption of service by registered mail has been very successful, as it was used by more than three-fourths of the claimants. In a recent decision⁴ the validity of service by registered mail was upheld by the United States Court of Appeals for the District of Columbia. Judge Nathan Cayton, who is credited with being the author of the District of Columbia Small-Claims Court Act, declared, when informed of this decision, that the ruling will save litigants about \$6,000 a year in costs, which would be the difference between the cost of postage and the marshal's fees.

It is interesting to note that there were only 8 demands for jury trial, of which number only 5 actually came to trial. It appears that the greatest desire of litigants in the small-claims court is for a quick determination of their cases, with little interest consequently in jury trials. Similarly, while the right to appeal is preserved, there were only 14 applications for reviews during the year. Four of these were granted by the court of appeals, and the other 10 denied.

One of the main reasons for the establishment of the small-claims court was to eliminate delay. This has been accomplished by the simple expedient of refusing continuances except when both parties desire it for the purpose of settlement or when actual illness prevents attendance in court. As a result there were only 2,241 continuances, and almost all of these were for the purpose of settlement of cases. Practically all trials were disposed of on the first return day. The usual return day is 10 days after the date the claim is filed, but in cases of wage claims, the minimum return period of 5 days is employed. Thus, it may be said that after 2 years' experience in the operation of the District of Columbia Small-Claims Court, the person with a small claim receives a prompt decision of his case and obtains "a judgment in time to enjoy it."

⁴ *Wise v. Herzog*, 114 Fed. (2d) 486.

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

FEDERAL LEGISLATION CONCERNING RAILROAD EMPLOYEES

CONGRESS is given the power to legislate on the subject of commerce between the States, by the provisions of Article 1, section 8, paragraph 3, of the United States Constitution. Under this authorization Congress has, from time to time, enacted legislation affecting employees engaged in such commerce.

In recent years considerable advancement has been made in the enactment of legislation for the benefit of railroad employees. The Railway Labor Act of 1926 was materially strengthened by amendatory legislation passed in 1934, and in 1936 the act was again amended to provide for the coverage of employees engaged in interstate commerce by air. Other important railroad legislation recently enacted includes the Railroad Retirement Act, Carriers' Taxing Act, and the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Act. It is interesting to note that comparatively uniform coverage has been provided under these four acts.

The tenth amendment to the Constitution provides that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." By virtue of this provision the States have retained power over their local or intrastate commerce. This power cannot be exercised in such a way as to place a direct burden upon interstate commerce. However, the courts have consistently held that the States were within their rights in passing laws relating to the operation of railroads if there was no conflicting Federal legislation, but that if a conflict existed the State legislation must yield.

The present article gives a brief survey of Federal legislation affecting railroad employees.¹

Wages and Hours of Labor

Power to enact legislation regulating the hours of labor of persons engaged in commerce, both interstate and intrastate, was vested solely in the States until 1907, when Congress passed a law limiting the hours of labor of persons "engaged in or connected with the

¹ The complete text of this legislation, compiled by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, has been published by the Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen (Cleveland, Ohio).

movement of any train" on interstate lines to 16 a day.² Provision was also made for rest periods. In addition, the law limited the hours of labor of train dispatchers, telegraphers, or any other employee who transmits messages or orders by telegraph or telephone, to 9 a day in places operated continuously day and night, and to 13 hours a day in places operated only during the daytime. Crews of wrecking or relief trains were specifically exempted from coverage by the act, and the Interstate Commerce Commission was charged with the duty of enforcing its provisions.

On May 29, 1911, the United States Supreme Court held this act to be constitutional.³ In an opinion delivered by Mr. Justice Hughes, the Court stated: "In its power suitably to provide for the safety of employees and travelers, Congress was not limited to the enactment of laws relating to mechanical appliances, but it was also competent to consider, and to endeavor to reduce, the dangers incident to the strain of excessive hours of duty on the part of engineers, conductors, train dispatchers, telegraphers, and other persons embraced within the class defined by the act."

Further regulation of the hours of labor of railroad employees became effective in 1916 when the act of Congress known as the Adamson law was approved. This law provided that 8 hours should be deemed a day's work and the measure of a day's work for the purpose of computing the wages of certain railroad employees. It does not forbid such employees from working more than 8 hours. Regulations for overtime work and overtime wage rates are generally governed by agreements between the railroad brotherhoods and the railroads. The constitutionality of this act was upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States on March 19, 1917, in the case of *Wilson v. New* (243 U. S. 332).

The Congress of the United States has passed no legislation fixing the wages of railroad employees. In November 1939, however, the Wage and Hour Division appointed a committee to recommend a minimum wage rate (up to 40 cents an hour) for the railroad industry. After receiving the report of the committee, the Wage and Hour Division observed that of some 1,200,000 wage earners employed by the railroad industry, the great majority are paid rates considerably higher than those that can be set under the Fair Labor Standards Act. There are approximately 100,000 railway workers, however, most of whom are maintenance-of-way workers, receiving less than 40 cents an hour. To provide for these workers, the Railroad Carrier Industry Committee has recommended a minimum-wage rate for the railroad industry. This rate has not as yet (November 1940) been approved.

² U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 61-64.

³ *Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. v. Interstate Commerce Commission*, 221 U. S. 612.

Labor Disputes

In an endeavor to insure the uninterrupted operation of railroads, the Federal Government has from time to time attempted, by means of legislation, to prevent strikes of railroad workers. The present system for handling labor disputes was provided in 1926⁴ when Congress passed the Railway Labor Act. This act was amended in 1934,⁵ and was further amended in 1936 to include common carriers by air engaged in interstate or foreign commerce.

The act makes it the duty of both carriers and employees to exert every reasonable effort to make and maintain agreements concerning rates of pay, rules, and working conditions, and to settle disputes, whether arising out of the application of such agreements or otherwise. To effectuate this purpose representatives are to be designated by the respective parties without interference, influence, or coercion by either party over the designation of such representatives by the other. In case of a dispute among the employees as to their representatives, it is the duty of the National Mediation Board to investigate and designate the proper representatives. If necessary, the Board is empowered to take a secret ballot of the employees.

Employees are given the right to organize and bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, and carriers are prohibited from requiring any person seeking employment to agree to join or not to join a labor organization.

The act provides for the establishment of two boards—the National Railroad Adjustment Board and the National Mediation Board. The first is composed of an equal number of representatives of railroad companies and railroad employees, and provides a tribunal to which may be referred disputes growing out of specific claims or grievances or out of the interpretation or application of agreements concerning rates of pay, rules, or working conditions. The decisions of the Adjustment Board are enforced through the Federal courts.

The Board is divided into four divisions, each with jurisdiction over certain classes of railroad employment. Should any division fail to agree on an award, or become deadlocked, the act provides for the selection of a referee, and if the division fails to select a referee within 10 days, the National Mediation Board must make an appointment within 10 days after receiving certification of such fact.

The second board established by the act—the National Mediation Board—is composed of three members appointed by the President. The services of this Board may be invoked by the parties, or either party, to (a) a dispute concerning rates of pay, rules, or working conditions not adjusted by the parties in conference, or (b) any other dispute not referable to the National Railroad Adjustment Board and

⁴ May 20, 1926, 44 Stat. L. 577.

⁵ U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 151-163.

not adjusted in conference between the parties or in which conferences are refused. The act also provides that the Board may proffer its services in case any labor emergency is found by it to exist at any time.

If unsuccessful in its attempt to bring about an adjustment through mediation, the Board must try to induce the parties to submit the controversy to arbitration. These arbitration boards may consist of either three or six members, one or two arbitrators to be appointed by each party, who, in turn, select the third, or the two additional arbitrators in case of a board of six. If they cannot agree on the arbitrators to represent the public, the National Mediation Board is authorized to appoint them.

The act further provides that if a dispute is not adjusted under the provisions of the act, and if the National Mediation Board is of the opinion that the situation threatens to interrupt interstate commerce to such a degree as to deprive a section of the country of essential transportation service, the Mediation Board is to notify the President who may, in his discretion, appoint an emergency board to investigate and report respecting such dispute. After the creation of such board no change in the conditions out of which the dispute arose may be made by the parties to the controversy during a period of 60 days.

On March 29, 1937, the United States Supreme Court unanimously upheld the constitutionality of the Railway Labor Act.⁶ In an opinion delivered by Mr. Justice Stone, the Court stated that Congress had the power to maintain interstate transportation in the face of industrial troubles, and that the Railway Labor Act was a proper measure to protect interstate commerce from interruptions caused by labor disputes. Concerning the contention of the railway involved in the case, that the nature of the work of "back shop" employees kept them within the State and therefore they are not within the province of the commerce clause, the Court declared that such employees are a part of interstate activity and are covered by the act.

Social Insurance

RETIREMENT

A retirement system for railroad employees first became effective when the Railroad Retirement Act of 1934 (48 Stat. L. 1283) was approved. However, on May 6, 1935, this act was held unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court.⁷ As a result of this decision, Congress on August 29, 1935, passed a new act known as the Railroad Retirement Act of 1935 (49 Stat. L. 967), and by a separate act (49 Stat. L. 974) provided a plan financing the pensions by the levying of taxes on both the carriers and the employees.

⁶ *Virginian Railway Co. v. System Federation No. 40, etc., et al.*, 300 U. S. 515.

⁷ *Railroad Retirement Board v. Alton Railroad Co.*, 295 U. S. 330.

On June 26, 1936, in the case of *Alton Railroad Co. v. R. R. Retirement Board* (16 Fed. Supp. 955) the United States District Court for the District of Columbia held the taxing act unconstitutional, but declared that the retirement act was valid.

Early in 1937, after a meeting of representatives of the carriers and their employees, an agreement was reached concerning a retirement plan for railroad employees. To carry this plan into effect, it was necessary for Congress to amend both the Railroad Retirement Act of 1935 and the taxing act, and on June 24, 1937, a new retirement act, known as the Railroad Retirement Act of 1937⁸ was approved. A new taxing act, called the Carriers Taxing Act of 1937⁹ was approved on June 29, 1937.

An individual who is entitled to credit for service with one or more employers under the act may qualify for an annuity, even though he is not at that time in the active service of an employer, when he meets any of the following requirements: (1) If he is 65 years of age or over; or (2) If he is between 60 and 65 and has completed 30 or more years of service for one or more employers under the act, or has become totally and permanently disabled for regular employment for hire. An annuity granted under these latter provisions is subject to a reduction of $\frac{1}{180}$ for each calendar month the applicant is less than 65 at the time the annuity begins to accrue. An employee who has 30 years of service and is permanently disabled may retire, irrespective of age. Service performed before January 1, 1937, for employers under the Railroad Retirement Act cannot be counted toward an annuity unless the individual either was on August 29, 1935, actually working for pay, that is, was in active compensated service for an employer under the act, or was in an employment relation to such an employer on that date.

The amount of the annuity is determined by multiplying the years of service by percentages of the monthly compensation. In computing the annuity the average monthly compensation used is that amount earned for services rendered subsequent to December 31, 1936, but the employee may include service rendered prior to January 1, 1937, in order to acquire a total of 30 years of service. For years of service counted prior to January 1, 1937, the actual earnings are not taken, but the annuity is based on the compensation earned during the years from 1924 to 1931. The annuity is paid directly to the retired employee by the Federal Government and in no case may it exceed \$120 a month.

The act further provides that an employee may elect a joint and survivor annuity. In such case he will receive a reduced annuity

⁸ Supp. V. to U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 228a to 228r (as amended 1940, Pub. No. 801, Pub. No. 833, Pub. Res. No. 81).

⁹ Supp. V. to U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 261 to 273 (as amended 1940, Pub. No. 833, Pub. Res. No. 81).

during his life and after his death his widow will receive for the rest of her life a survivor annuity which either may be equal to the employee's reduced annuity or may be 75 or 50 percent of that amount. Provision is also made for death benefits in the case of persons who were employees subsequent to December 31, 1936. The amount of this benefit is 4 percent of all wages earned by the individual, up to \$300 monthly, after December 31, 1936, minus the aggregate amount of annuities paid to the individual and his surviving spouse.

The act is administered by the Railroad Retirement Board, composed of 3 members appointed by the President, and confirmed by the Senate. One member is chosen upon recommendation of representatives of the employees, one upon recommendation of representatives of the carriers, and the third, who is chairman of the Board, without specific recommendation.

The Carriers Taxing Act of 1937 provided for an income tax equal to the following percentages of the monthly compensation (not exceeding \$300) earned by the employee after December 31, 1936: 2½ percent during 1937, 1938, and 1939; 3 percent during 1940, 1941, and 1942; 3¼ percent during 1943, 1944, and 1945; 3½ percent during 1946, 1947, and 1948; and 3¾ percent after December 31, 1948. A similar tax is levied on the carriers.

In the case of employee representatives, a larger tax is levied, ranging from 5½ percent in 1937, 1938, and 1939, to 7½ percent after December 31, 1948.

Unemployment Insurance

An act¹⁰ providing for a comprehensive system of unemployment insurance for employees of carriers engaged in interstate commerce was approved by the President on June 25, 1938. The act provides for a system designed to meet the special needs of the railroad industry, and removes the employees from the coverage of other unemployment-compensation acts. The majority of States have now provided for the transfer to the Federal Government of funds accumulated for the benefit of railroad employees under State acts. The Railroad Retirement Board is charged with the administration of the act.

An employee is qualified to receive benefits if the Board finds that he earned \$150 or more with respect to employment during his base year. Benefits are payable to any qualified employee for each day of unemployment in excess of 7 during the first period of 14 days in which he has 7 or more days of unemployment. In any subsequent 14-day period during the same benefit year the employee will receive compensation for each day of unemployment in excess of four. The benefit year begins July 1 of any year and ends June 30 of the following

¹⁰ Supp. V to U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 351-367 (as amended by Public Acts Nos. 141, 725, 764, and 833 of the 76th Cong.).

year. The base year is the calendar year immediately preceding the benefit year. The maximum number of days for which benefits may be received during a benefit year is 100. Daily benefit rates range from \$1.75 to \$4, depending upon the amount of the base year earnings.

Certain disqualifications are imposed on an employee if he voluntarily left work without good cause, or failed without good cause to accept suitable work available and offered to him, or if his unemployment is due to a stoppage of work caused by a strike commenced in violation of the Railway Labor Act. However, an employee is not disqualified if he refuses to accept a position which is vacant because of a strike, lock-out, or other labor dispute, or if the remuneration, hours, or other working conditions are less favorable than those prevailing for similar work in the locality, or if the rate of remuneration is less than the union wage rate, if any, for similar work in the locality. In addition, an employee is not required to accept work if, as a condition of being employed, he would be required to join a company union or to resign from or refrain from joining any bona fide labor organization.

The employer is required to contribute an amount equal to 3 percent of the compensation payable to the employee, excluding any amount in excess of \$300 per month. These contributions are collected by the Railroad Retirement Board and deposited with the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States. Ninety percent of all contributions is credited to an account known as the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Account, to be used for the payment of benefits under the act. The other 10 percent is deposited in a fund, known as the Railroad Unemployment Insurance Administration Fund, to meet the expenses of administering the act.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY

The first Employers' Liability Act was passed by the Congress in 1906,¹¹ but was held unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court because it affected "any" employee, whether engaged in interstate or intrastate commerce, and was therefore an exercise of power beyond the authority granted to Congress by the Constitution.¹² In 1908 Congress passed the second Employers' Liability Act, applying to common carriers by railroad engaged in interstate commerce.¹³ The act was amended in 1910 and again in 1939 (Public, No. 382, 76th Cong.). On January 15, 1912, the Supreme Court of the United States held this act to be constitutional.¹⁴

The act abolishes the fellow-servant doctrine, its effect being to make the negligence of a fellow-servant the negligence of the em-

¹¹ 34 Stat. L. 232.

¹² *The Employers' Liability Cases*, 207 U. S. 463.

¹³ U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 51-60 (as amended 1939, Public No. 382, 76th Cong.).

¹⁴ *Second Employers' Liability Cases*, 223 U. S. 1.

ployer. It establishes the rule of comparative negligence whereby damages are diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of negligence attributed to the injured employee, and eliminates the doctrine of contributory negligence. However, an employee is held to have assumed the risk of his employment except where the employer has violated a Federal statute enacted for the safety of employees and such violation has contributed to the injury or death of the employee. It is well to note, also, that the negligence complained of must be the cause of the injury. The law further provides that an action may be brought in the State court, or in a district court of the United States in the district of the residence of the defendant, or in which the cause of action arose, or in which the defendant is doing business at the time of commencing such action.

Safety and Health

By the provisions of the Safety Appliance Act of 1893 and several subsequent acts, Congress has made it obligatory upon all railroads engaged in interstate commerce to equip all cars with certain safety devices, such as automatic couplers, driving-wheel brakes, and grab irons.¹⁵ Included among the subsequent safety laws is the Boiler Inspection Act passed by Congress in 1911. That act, as originally passed, was limited to the inspection of boilers by the Interstate Commerce Commission. However, by later amendments to the act, the Interstate Commerce Commission was given power to prescribe, in addition, rules and regulations by which to determine the fitness of engines for railroad service.

The question of whether Congress has manifested an intention to occupy the entire field of the regulation of railroad equipment was settled by the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of *Napier v. Atlantic Coast Line* (272 U. S. 605). In that case, the court held that the power delegated to the Interstate Commerce Commission by the Boiler Inspection Act, as amended, is a general one, and, therefore, it was the intention of Congress to occupy the entire field. In regard to the Safety Appliance Acts, the Court was of the opinion that Congress had not manifested an intention to occupy the entire field, and that State legislation in this field was valid where there was no conflict with the Federal legislation.

The original act creating the Interstate Commerce Commission (24 Stat. L. 379) was amended in 1920 so as to empower the Commission to require the installation of certain safety devices. This provision was enlarged by an amendment in 1937.¹⁶

As a result of this extension of authority and the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the *Napier* case, the Interstate Com-

¹⁵ U. S. Code, 1934, title 45, secs. 1-46.

¹⁶ Supp. V. to U. S. Code, 1934, title 49, sec. 26.

merce Commission has from time to time issued orders requiring the installation of safety devices. Included among these are orders requiring cab curtains on engines and automatic fire doors, and the stoker and power reverse gear orders.

The United States Public Health Service has issued interstate quarantine regulations affecting the health of railroad passengers and employees, and providing protection against the spread of disease by requiring sanitary drinking cups, running water, toilet facilities, and setting up standards of heat.¹⁷

In this brief review of Federal legislation affecting railroad employees, we have seen that Congress has enacted many constructive measures for the benefit of such workers. Again, we have seen that where Congress has preempted the field, State legislation is not effective as to interstate commerce. Such legislation is valid only so long as Congress is silent on the subject.



COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Right of Access to Pay-Roll Records Upheld

THE United States Supreme Court has refused to review a decision of a lower court and thereby upholds the right of the Wage and Hour Division to make routine inspections of the pay-roll records of employers subject to the Fair Labor Standards Act. The Federal District Court in Chicago and the Circuit Court of Appeals had ruled that the Division may require an employer to produce wage and hour records in order to determine whether the act has been violated.¹⁸ The decision of the district court also upheld the constitutionality of the act, but this question was not made an issue on appeal.

Briefly, the Wage and Hour Division had conducted an investigation into the acts and practices of the Kansas City branch of Montgomery Ward & Co., relating to hours of labor, wages, classification of employees, and alleged discriminatory acts. In the course of the investigation, the administrator had ordered the production of wage and hour records and, upon the refusal of the company to comply, brought an action to compel the production of the company's records. The company objected on the ground that it required the production of records of all employees, whether or not covered by the act. It was contended also by the company that the Division should show reasonable cause to believe that the employer was violating the act.

¹⁷ U. S. Public Health Service, *Interstate Quarantine Regulations of the U. S.*, revised edition, May 1921, and amendments No. 1 (1929), No. 2 (1932), No. 3 (1933), No. 4 (1933). Note the laws quoted in this publication giving authority to issue the regulations.

¹⁸ *Andrews v. Montgomery Ward & Co.* (30 Fed. Sup. 380); *Fleming v. Montgomery Ward & Co.* (114 Fed. (2d) 384).

The Circuit Court held that the Wage and Hour Division was empowered to inspect wage and hour records of an employer without even showing reasonable grounds to believe that the employer had violated the act. The court declared that inspection of an employer's records under such circumstances was not an unreasonable search and seizure in violation of the fourth amendment to the Constitution and, further, that it would be inconsistent with the scope and purpose of the act to limit the inspection of books and records only to cases in which the Administrator had reasonable cause to believe an employer had violated the act. The authority of the Administrator was held also to be unimpaired by the fact that the records of the employees not covered by the act would be disclosed and that producing them would be an onerous burden upon the company.

Wage-Hour Law Applicable to Watchman Performing Additional Duties

The Federal wage and hour law was held by the North Carolina Supreme Court to apply to a night watchman. The watchman was employed by a company manufacturing lumber, a part of which moved into interstate commerce. The facts of the case showed that, in addition to the ordinary duties of a watchman, the employee was required to tend the boilers, so that sufficient steam could be available for the operation of the plant.

The Fair Labor Standards Act provides that an employee shall be considered to be engaged in the production of goods if he is employed in producing, manufacturing, or in any process or occupation necessary to such production. In view of the additional duties the watchman was required to perform, which were necessary in the production of the lumber, the court ruled that he was "in actuality engaged in the production of goods for interstate commerce." The court pointed out also in this connection that the man who attended to the boilers during the day was clearly engaged in an occupation necessary to the production of goods. The watchman, whose duty was to keep the boilers fit for service, the court said, should receive the same benefit accorded men directly at work producing these goods. (*Hart v. Gregory*, 10 S. E. (2d) 644.)

Law Requiring Equal Pay for Women Held Constitutional

A Michigan law making it a misdemeanor for an employer to discriminate in the payment of wages as between men and women has been held constitutional by the State Supreme Court. Under this act, an employer who employs both men and women in the manufacture or production of any article is guilty of a misdemeanor if he pays any woman a lower wage "than is being paid to males similarly em-

ployed in such manufacture, production, or in any employment formerly performed by males." The employer in this case sought to prevent the operation of the law on the ground that it was uncertain, arbitrary, and confiscatory, and denied to him the equal protection of the laws.

The court ruled, however, as to the claim of uncertainty, that the use of the word "similar" was not so indefinite and ambiguous as to constitute a denial of due process of law. This word was held to have a definite meaning and as used in the act meant "substantially alike." The court further declared that the expression simply means that "the employer shall not, because of her sex only, pay a woman employee less than it pays a man employee for doing work of substantially the same character, quality, and quantity." In answering the objection to the phrase that the law applied to "any employment formerly performed by males," the court ruled that such phrase did not inject any uncertainty as to an employer who had employed both men and women for a number of years.

In replying to the objection that the classification of employments in the law denied equal protection to the employer, the court ruled that the evil sought to be eradicated was discrimination against women, and the employer cannot complain merely because the legislature attempted to remedy only a part of the problem. In the course of its opinion, the court held also that the statute was not arbitrary nor confiscatory, and that the act was not unconstitutional because employers in the same locality may be required to pay different wages to women employees for the same work. (*General Motors Corporation v. Read*, 293 N. W. 751.)

"Labor Dispute" Under Washington Anti-Injunction Law

A dispute growing out of an employer's alleged breach of contract with a union was held by the Supreme Court of Washington State to constitute a "labor dispute," as defined in the State anti-injunction law. The contract provided that the employer could not sell or deliver goods to a customer not in good standing with the union. In spite of the contract, the employer did sell to such a customer and, upon his refusal to discontinue these sales, the union called a strike and pickets were placed on the employer's premises. Although the lower court held that the contract had been breached, it did so on the theory that the controversy was not a labor dispute, and granted an injunction.

The Supreme Court, however, ruled that a labor dispute did exist and that the injunction had been improperly granted. The State anti-injunction act, it was pointed out, defines a labor dispute as any controversy concerning the terms or conditions of employment "regardless of whether or not the disputants stand in the proximate relation of employer and employee." As the contract contained many such

terms and conditions affecting employment, one of which prohibited the employer from selling goods to a customer not in good standing with the union, the court ruled that the controversy nevertheless constituted a labor dispute. The court held also that the picketing did not constitute a secondary boycott, since it was limited to the employer's premises, and, further, that the union did not threaten or harass any of the employer's customers or persons selling goods to the company. (*Marvel Baking Co. v. Teamsters' Union Local No. 524*, 105 Pac. (2d) 46.)

Michigan Mediation Act Applicable to Municipally Owned Public Utility

The Michigan Labor Mediation Act is applicable to a public utility owned and operated by a municipality, according to a recent decision of the State Supreme Court. The act provides that whenever a dispute arises between employees and an employer operating a public utility, the Governor must appoint a special commission of three persons to undertake to mediate the dispute during a 30-day period following notice of a strike or lock-out.

The city of Grand Rapids operates a power plant which furnishes power for both public and private use. In the operation of the power plant, the city was held to be an employer "operating a public utility" within the meaning of the mediation act. The court further declared that it was the intent of the legislature to apply this act to all labor disputes, in the interest of the public welfare. The act applied also to a dispute in which employees of the city's lighting department voted to strike and gave the required statutory notice of intent to strike. The city contended that the act could not apply to a home-rule city, and that the dispute was a matter of purely local concern over which the legislature exercised no control. The court ruled, however, that the State was well within its police power in thus acting to prevent disputes between employees and employers, not only in manufacturing concerns and factories but also "in public utilities whether privately or publicly owned and operated." (*Local Union No. 876, etc. v. Michigan Labor Mediation Board*, 293 N. W. 809.)

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN FINLAND¹

SOCIAL legislation in Finland began about 1889, when the first legislation to protect labor in industrial occupations was enacted, and the inspection of labor conditions was introduced.

Labor Legislation

After the first World War, intensive social reconstruction was taken up all over the world, and the newly acquired independence of Finland provided particularly favorable conditions in that country. At that time a whole series of social laws was passed. The year 1917 had brought such important laws as those protecting labor in industrial and certain other occupations, inspection of labor conditions, employment service, workmen's compensation for accidents, unemployment-relief funds, and even a law providing an 8-hour working day.

The most important laws concerning the relation between employer and worker were enacted during the first years of the country's independence—the laws regulating labor contracts in 1922, apprenticeship in 1923, and marine labor and collective bargaining in 1924. Mediation in labor disputes was regulated by means of a law passed in 1925, in accordance with which four arbitration officials are employed. In 1934, a new apprenticeship law was passed, and in 1931 a law to prevent industrial disputes between employers and employees. Two new acts, passed on April 21 and June 2, 1939, substantially extended holiday privileges for seamen and for workers in general, in both cases in accordance with the corresponding international conventions.

Measures relating to employment.—Under the employment-service statute, which was passed in the first year of independence, was created a system of free local employment-service offices receiving State support. This law has twice been amplified, first through a law passed in 1926, which introduced a new basis for State support of the service.

Unemployment on a large scale did not occur until the economic crisis began in 1929. It has been fought mainly by the provision of employment on public works, training courses, useful-employment schools, and allotment activities.

Finland has also paid particular attention to unemployment in intellectual pursuits. At first, training courses were arranged for this category of unemployed workers, but in 1934 a change was made by which they were given provisional employment in the civil service. A special committee has also been formed for this class. The unemployment problem has been regulated entirely by administrative measures.

¹ Abstract of article by Nilo A. Mannio, General Secretary of Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs.

Measures for protection of labor.—Among the more important laws designed for the protection of labor, may be cited that of 1924 regulating hours of seamen, and one passed in 1928 to regulate working conditions in bakeries. Another law passed in 1928, together with regulations for its execution, provided for shelter for lumbermen and timber floaters.

An act of 1929 forbade the use of white lead and of lead sulphate in certain paint works; the occasion for this was the approval of a corresponding international convention. In the same year, a bill was passed regulating the employment of children and young people.

By a law passed in 1930, labor protection was extended to many new industrial branches, and was made more effective. Another law passed in 1930 prohibited the employment of young women in certain kinds of loading and discharging work, and in 1937 a law was passed to forbid the employment of women in mines.

For the further development of labor protection two important committees are at present active, one (dating from 1932) on hours of work and the other (created in 1937) on marine labor.

The number of labor inspectors has been increased from time to time; at present there are 9 male and 4 female district inspectors, 8 assistants, and about 600 local inspectors. The inspection of steam boilers and machinery (other than those in sea-going vessels) is undertaken by 9 district, 47 assistant, and 33 local inspectors.

Social Insurance

In the sphere of social insurance, accident insurance has been continuously developed by legislation. The most recent accident-insurance laws greatly extended the scope of insurance and made it more effective. The system was reformed in 1935. Among other innovations, employers' liability for minor accidents was introduced. In the same year were passed a law providing for the right of a person employed by the State to compensation in the event of accident, and a special law concerning compensation for accident incurred in an attempt to rescue life.

Accident insurance for persons sailing on the seas was provided by a special law passed on October 9, 1939. By this act, larger benefits, as well as compensation of other kinds besides those decreed in the worker's accident-insurance act, must be paid to them. This insurance liability was defined in greater detail by the statute of October 6, 1939. Persons engaged in sailing inland waters are excluded from the increased compensation. To handle this insurance the carriers have formed an association, which in its turn has signed a reinsurance contract with the State insurance committee.

An extension of compulsory social insurance to other spheres has always been a problem of paramount importance, and proposals have

been made in Parliament to introduce illness, old-age, and disability insurance. Final legislation on these questions did not, however, take place until Parliament passed a law on old-age pensions, which came into force at the beginning of 1939. This law, which applies to all citizens, and under which over a hundred million marks will eventually be distributed in pensions, is the most important result hitherto attained in the spheres of social insurance and social policy in general in Finland.

Housing

For the housing problem, two committees were formed in 1937, of which one had the task of investigating the question of housing in the country, and the other had to draft suggestions for the improvement of housing conditions in towns. The law of 1927 established a homeownership fund for financing an extensive program of erection of small houses. This fund has now been divided into two parts, in order that its activities in the towns and other centers of population may be controlled by the Ministry of Labor, and those in the rural districts by the Ministry of Agriculture.

Wartime Measures

Recent wartime legislation has naturally aimed at strengthening defense preparations. Under the law of September 26, 1930, as amended September 29, 1939, the Government is empowered to forbid strikes during the period covered by the act, and to intervene when labor conditions give or are likely to give rise to differences of opinion between employers and employees.

Compulsory requisition of labor for the performance of transport and other work in the interest of defense is also provided for in the original act. For this purpose males between the ages of 18 and 52 are to be called first, but no one may be retained against his will to perform this work for more than 12 working days. The coverage was broadened by a law of June 16, 1939, to include every Finnish citizen between the ages of 18 and 60 (with certain exceptions) but reserving to persons conscripted for defense work the rights provided in the labor laws, though with such limitations as might be necessary under a state of war.

Insurance of war risks.—On July 6, 1939, the first law on war insurance was passed, authorizing the Government to grant reinsurance for transport insurance policies and worker's accident-insurance policies issued by Finnish insurance companies. A special war insurance board was formed at the same time to deal with this reinsurance within the framework of the existing legislation on the subject. As the first law proved inadequate, a new law on war insurance was passed on October 24, 1939, by which the Government can grant

reinsurance for insurance policies issued by the insurance company in question in other spheres besides those mentioned. In practice, however, this reinsurance is still confined to transport and accident insurance as the cabinet decision of November 11, 1939, more particularly directs.

A special law, passed on October 9, 1939, increased the workmen's compensation benefits of sailors (except those sailing on inland waters) and widened the scope of such insurance. This insurance liability was defined in greater detail by the statute of October 6, 1939.

An act of October 24, 1939, extended the coverage of life-insurance policies, taken out before the outbreak of war, to risks caused by war. This increased responsibility is covered mainly by the resources which the companies have at their disposal, and in part also by supplements to premiums, so that the compensation in question does not entail state expenditure.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

PRELIMINARY estimates for October 1940 show about 235 strikes beginning in the month in which 63,000 workers were involved. The number of man-days of idleness because of strikes in October was about 865,000.

The estimates for October represent a slight increase (3 percent) in number of strikes as compared with September; the number of

*Trend of Strikes, 1933 to October 1940*¹

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933.....		1,695				1,168,272		16,872,128
1934.....		1,856				1,466,695		19,591,949
1935.....		2,014				1,117,213		15,456,337
1936.....		2,172				788,648		13,901,956
1937.....		4,740				1,860,621		28,424,857
1938.....		2,772				688,376		9,148,273
1939.....		2,613				1,170,962		17,812,219
1939								
January.....	120	203	323	184	139	51,159	72,427	513,460
February.....	139	204	343	204	139	68,252	88,267	553,138
March.....	139	210	349	199	150	43,337	64,690	618,147
April.....	150	281	431	255	176	396,166	425,748	4,902,238
May.....	176	258	434	272	162	95,239	457,407	3,547,898
June.....	162	245	407	269	138	62,534	127,474	958,127
July.....	138	251	389	216	173	175,542	211,548	1,168,382
August.....	173	275	448	272	176	79,670	118,772	1,101,419
September.....	176	197	373	222	151	36,846	103,538	892,485
October.....	151	205	356	217	139	106,628	139,608	1,508,120
November.....	139	178	317	201	116	43,239	130,341	1,664,574
December.....	116	106	222	128	94	12,350	37,122	384,261
1940								
January.....	94	118	212	120	92	25,189	39,536	239,217
February.....	92	153	245	134	111	28,613	36,974	284,616
March.....	111	161	272	173	99	22,104	42,711	381,083
April.....	99	207	306	193	113	38,911	52,173	447,068
May.....	113	217	330	224	106	51,523	76,122	667,436
June.....	106	178	284	170	114	35,026	52,882	470,039
July.....	114	183	297	182	115	59,145	77,371	567,317
August.....	115	192	307	195	112	58,990	85,913	692,362
September ¹	112	228	340	205	135	63,000	95,000	730,000
October ¹	135	235	370	225	145	63,000	95,000	865,000

¹ Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

workers involved in strikes was about the same in both months; but the number of man-days idle in October was 18 percent greater than in September.

The largest strikes in October involved (1) about 15,000 building-trades workers in St. Louis County, Mo., from October 25 to 28; (2) around 9,000 employees of retail food stores in eastern Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware, beginning October 15 and continuing into November; and (3) about 7,000 employees of local and long-distance trucking firms in New York City from October 8 to about October 15, although a large portion of the latter group obtained a settlement and returned to work after only 2 days of idleness.

The estimates for October 1940, as compared with October a year ago, indicate an increase of 15 percent in number of strikes but reductions of 41 percent in number of workers involved and 43 percent in the amount of idleness due to strikes. The amount of idleness and the number of workers involved in strikes during October a year ago were high, principally because of the strikes of cotton pickers in California and of Chrysler automobile workers in Detroit, Mich.

The estimates for September and October 1940, shown in the foregoing table, are based principally on newspaper reports. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.



STRIKES IN AUGUST 1940¹

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has obtained detailed information on 192 strikes which began in August, involving nearly 59,000 workers. These strikes, together with 115 which continued into August from preceding months, made a total of 307 strikes in progress during August, in which nearly 86,000 workers were involved, causing 692,000 man-days of idleness during the month. The largest strike in the month involved nearly 15,000 painters, mostly in New York City. Jobs of New York contractors in a few other localities were affected also. The strike began August 26th and continued for 1 month, when the painters returned to work under an agreement to arbitrate the issues in dispute.

The largest number of strikes in any industry group was 25 in the lumber and allied products industries. There were 23 in the transportation and communication industries, 22 in building and construction, and 19 each in the machinery-manufacturing industries and trade. There were more workers involved in building and construction strikes than in any other industry because of the strike of painters referred to above. There were about 6,700 workers involved in

¹ Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

textile strikes, the largest of which was a stoppage of knit-goods workers in New York. There were about 6,500 workers in mining strikes (principally bituminous coal), 4,700 in iron and steel strikes and 4,600 in machinery-manufacturing strikes. Two of the mine strikes were over safety conditions; one at a mine where 63 lives had been lost the previous month. In the other, the miners stopped work until the company conformed to safety requirements of the State Inspector. Industries with the most man-days of idleness during August were, in order, machinery manufacturing (121,000), iron and steel (92,000), mining (70,000), building construction (67,500), and lumber and allied products (48,000).

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in August 1940, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries.....	192	58,990	307	85,913	692,362
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	13	4,743	20	6,397	92,013
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	1	2,352	2	2,709	45,486
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	2	548	2	548	5,116
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures.....	1	1,006	1	1,006	10,013
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....			1	150	3,300
Stoves.....	2	69	3	134	304
Structural and ornamental metal work.....	3	326	4	487	4,559
Tin cans and other tinware.....	1	331	1	331	4,905
Wire and wire products.....	2	53	2	53	507
Other.....	1	58	4	979	17,763
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	19	4,595	29	8,800	121,295
Agricultural implements.....	1	81	1	81	1,053
Electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies.....	8	2,906	10	4,575	66,377
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	6	1,148	12	2,991	42,819
Machine tools (power-driven).....			1	6	72
Other.....	4	460	5	1,147	10,944
Transportation equipment.....	2	800	6	1,112	6,444
Automobiles, bodies and parts.....	1	200	4	472	4,824
Shipbuilding.....	1	600	2	640	1,620
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	3	3,019	7	4,703	26,532
Aluminum manufactures.....	1	2,184	1	2,184	2,184
Jewelry.....	1	405	1	405	1,620
Silverware and plated ware.....	1	430	1	430	3,010
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....			2	986	5,528
Stamped and enameled ware.....			1	138	1,870
Other.....			1	560	12,320
Lumber and allied products.....	25	3,215	41	7,326	48,343
Furniture.....	11	1,070	20	2,440	23,656
Millwork and planing.....	3	824	4	884	8,084
Sawmills and logging camps.....	8	932	11	2,730	8,247
Other.....	3	389	6	1,272	8,356
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	6	907	11	2,052	22,182
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	1	56	3	1,002	5,747
Cement.....	1	350	1	350	5,600
Glass.....			1	26	572
Pottery.....	2	377	2	377	5,797
Other.....	2	124	4	297	4,466
Textiles and their products.....	12	6,719	21	8,544	43,061
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods.....	1	38	2	213	1,635
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....			1	88	704
Silk and rayon goods.....	1	649	3	1,521	14,928
Other.....	3	539	5	1,069	12,429

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in August 1940, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Textiles and their products—Continued.					
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's	1	18	1	18	18
Clothing, women's			1	76	152
Men's furnishings	1	700	1	700	700
Hosiery	3	357	4	413	1,494
Knit goods	1	3,900	2	3,928	10,516
Other	1	518	1	518	505
Leather and its manufactures	2	200	4	1,399	14,168
Boots and shoes	2	200	3	1,349	14,018
Leather			1	50	150
Food and kindred products	5	1,175	15	2,197	24,578
Baking			4	292	2,511
Beverages			1	31	165
Butter	1	94	1	94	564
Canning and preserving	3	402	4	556	10,654
Confectionery			1	247	2,964
Slaughtering and meat packing			1	29	783
Other	1	679	3	948	6,937
Tobacco manufactures	1	2,700	2	2,767	6,137
Cigars	1	2,700	2	2,767	6,137
Paper and printing	4	601	7	797	10,788
Boxes, paper	3	559	4	631	8,244
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job			1	15	330
Other	1	42	2	151	2,214
Chemicals and allied products	4	163	6	785	8,354
Fertilizers	1	77	1	77	77
Other	3	86	5	708	8,277
Rubber products	4	940	4	940	6,521
Other rubber goods	4	940	4	940	6,521
Miscellaneous manufacturing	7	1,102	13	2,499	40,213
Furriers and fur factories	2	38	2	38	494
Other	5	1,064	11	2,461	39,719
Extraction of minerals	6	6,540	8	9,395	70,498
Coal mining, anthracite	1	500	2	2,355	22,485
Coal mining, bituminous	4	5,995	5	6,995	47,383
Other	1	45	1	45	630
Transportation and communication	23	3,241	30	5,783	38,968
Water transportation	6	1,070	6	1,070	4,402
Motortruck transportation	9	1,098	13	3,034	15,063
Motorbus transportation	2	47	3	93	1,296
Taxicabs and miscellaneous	4	237	6	797	17,398
Electric railroad	1	779	1	779	779
Telephone and telegraph	1	10	1	10	30
Trade	19	1,183	30	2,313	27,077
Wholesale	6	232	10	636	3,861
Retail	13	951	20	1,677	23,216
Domestic and personal service	9	355	16	769	10,556
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses	5	165	9	477	9,176
Laundries	3	162	3	162	392
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing	1	28	4	130	788
Professional service			1	40	1,240
Recreation and amusement			1	40	1,240
Building and construction	22	16,379	26	16,593	67,520
Buildings, exclusive of PWA	13	16,077	14	16,089	64,182
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings)	9	302	12	504	3,338
Agriculture and fishing			3	224	1,516
Agriculture			2	74	1,216
Fishing			1	150	300
Other nonmanufacturing industries	6	413	7	478	4,538

Slightly more than half of the 192 strikes beginning in August were in the six States of New York (29), California (20), Pennsylvania (18), Ohio (12), Washington (10), and Wisconsin (10). The greatest numbers of workers involved in local strikes were in Pennsylvania (11,707), New York (9,415), Florida (2,757) and California (2,169). If the New York workers in the painters' strike, classified as an interstate dispute in table 2, were added to those involved in local New York strikes the figure for the State would be around 24,000. Most of the workers involved in Florida strikes were cigar workers employed by a Jacksonville firm. States with the greatest number of man-days of idleness during August were Pennsylvania, New York, Missouri, and Illinois.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in August 1940, by States*

State	Beginning in August		In progress during August		Man-days idle during August
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States.....	192	58,900	307	85,913	692,362
Alabama.....	6	1,172	8	1,352	8,805
Arizona.....	1	13	1	13	234
Arkansas.....	2	222	4	1,901	2,568
California.....	20	2,169	30	3,316	36,214
Connecticut.....			2	688	13,904
District of Columbia.....	1	176	2	226	1,080
Florida.....	3	2,757	5	2,538	6,768
Georgia.....	1	148	1	148	888
Idaho.....	1	100	1	100	2,500
Illinois.....	8	1,170	18	4,073	45,671
Indiana.....	6	1,206	10	1,647	22,998
Iowa.....	1	14	3	73	737
Kentucky.....	2	1,225	3	1,244	1,476
Louisiana.....	4	599	4	599	1,818
Maryland.....	1	331	2	360	5,313
Massachusetts.....	9	1,796	14	2,649	31,508
Michigan.....	3	422	9	3,342	29,461
Minnesota.....	2	242	4	896	9,873
Mississippi.....	1	85	1	85	425
Missouri.....	7	582	14	3,637	56,448
Montana.....	1	25	1	25	75
Nebraska.....			1	250	750
Nevada.....			1	28	70
New Hampshire.....			1	597	2,388
New Jersey.....	8	527	14	1,787	25,346
New Mexico.....			1	143	286
New York.....	29	9,415	45	11,313	76,311
North Carolina.....	1	70	2	245	1,155
North Dakota.....	2	25	2	25	82
Ohio.....	12	1,068	17	1,534	16,581
Oklahoma.....	2	102	2	102	739
Oregon.....	2	278	3	425	3,346
Pennsylvania.....	18	11,707	29	15,821	155,279
Rhode Island.....	2	451	2	451	2,080
Tennessee.....	2	1,066	3	1,114	11,369
Texas.....	3	118	4	147	1,499
Virginia.....	2	107	4	714	7,850
Washington.....	10	1,633	10	1,633	5,596
West Virginia.....	6	553	7	579	7,292
Wisconsin.....	10	1,454	13	1,992	15,526
Interstate.....	3	15,962	9	17,801	80,053

In addition to the painters' strike, two others beginning in August extended into two or more States. One of these was a strike of seamen on freight vessels in Buffalo, N. Y., and Saginaw, Mich., and the other was a strike against trucking firms with operations mostly in Virginia but extending also into Pennsylvania and New York.

About 62 percent of the strikes beginning in August involved fewer than 100 workers each, 33 percent involved 100 but less than 1,000 each, and only 5 percent (9 strikes) involved 1,000 or more workers. Eight of the 9 strikes in the latter group involved between 1,000 and 5,000 workers each, and only the painters' strike involved more than 10,000. The average number of workers in the 192 strikes beginning in August was 307. (See table 3.)

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in August 1940, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—						
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries.....	192	37	82	50	14	8		1
<i>Manufacturing</i>								
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	13	1	4	6		2		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	19	1	10	6	1	1		
Transportation equipment.....	2			1	1			
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	3			2		1		
Lumber and allied products.....	25	4	9	11	1			
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	6	1	1	4				
Textiles and their products.....	12	1	3	4	3	1		
Leather and its manufactures.....	2		1	1				
Food and kindred products.....	5		3	1	1			
Tobacco manufactures.....	1					1		
Paper and printing.....	4	1	1	2				
Chemicals and allied products.....	4	2	2					
Rubber products.....	4	1	2		1			
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	7	1	4	1	1			
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>								
Extraction of minerals.....	6		1	1	2	2		
Transportation and communication.....	23	10	9	1	3			
Trade.....	19	7	9	3				
Domestic and personal service.....	9	2	7					
Building and construction.....	22	4	13	4				1
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	6	1	3	2				

Nearly 41 percent of the workers involved in the strikes beginning in August were concerned principally with wage and/or hour issues. This group included the large number of New York painters who were endeavoring to obtain an increase in wages and reduce their weekly hours from 35 to 30. About 35 percent of the total workers involved were concerned principally with union-organization issues and about 24 percent were involved in disputes over miscellaneous issues including sympathy strikes, union rivalry, jurisdictional questions and specific grievances such as vacations, penalties, size of working crews,

objections to certain supervisors, and increased work loads. Included in the last group were nearly 4,000 New York knit-goods workers who conducted a stoppage to ratify a new agreement with the United Knitwear Manufacturers' League and also to obtain new contracts with "independent" shops, not belonging to the League. A week's vacation with pay had been one of the principal issues in obtaining the new contracts. Included also were about 3,500 coal miners in western Pennsylvania whose dispute centered in the question of methods to be followed in getting out their coal.

In terms of number of strikes, 26 percent were over wage and hour issues, 53 percent were due principally to union-organization issues, and in 21 percent the major issues were miscellaneous grievances.

TABLE 4.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in August 1940

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	192	100.0	58,990	100.0
Wages and hours.....	50	26.0	24,017	40.7
Wage increase.....	39	20.3	7,297	12.4
Wage decrease.....	4	2.1	383	.6
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	7	3.6	16,337	27.7
Union organization.....	101	52.6	20,901	35.4
Recognition.....	22	11.5	2,800	4.7
Recognition and wages.....	18	9.4	3,592	6.1
Recognition and hours.....	1	.5	19	(¹)
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	14	7.3	1,245	2.1
Closed or union shop.....	34	17.6	8,906	15.1
Discrimination.....	8	4.2	2,453	4.2
Strengthening bargaining position.....	4	2.1	1,886	3.2
Miscellaneous.....	41	21.4	14,072	23.9
Sympathy.....	5	2.6	1,187	2.0
Rival unions or factions.....	6	3.1	1,075	1.8
Jurisdiction ²	3	1.6	240	.4
Other.....	26	13.6	11,220	19.1
Not reported.....	1	.5	350	.6

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

² It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Due to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

Of the 307 strikes in progress during August, 195 were terminated during the month with an average duration of nearly 21 calendar days. About 34 percent of these strikes were terminated in less than a week after they began, 43 percent lasted from a week to 1 month, 19 percent lasted from 1 to 3 months, and about 4 percent had been in progress for 3 months or more. All of the strikes in the latter group were small, the largest involving only about 150 workers.

TABLE 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in August 1940

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than 1½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries.....	195	67	50	34	27	10	7
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	14	5	3	4	1	1	-----
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	12	3	2	1	3	2	1
Transportation equipment.....	4	3	3	-----	-----	1	-----
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	3	1	-----	1	-----	1	-----
Lumber and allied products.....	26	8	3	8	5	1	1
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	5	-----	2	1	1	1	-----
Textiles and their products.....	11	4	3	3	-----	1	-----
Leather and its manufactures.....	3	1	-----	1	-----	1	-----
Food and kindred products.....	12	1	6	1	2	-----	2
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	-----	-----	1	-----	-----	-----
Paper and printing.....	4	1	-----	1	2	-----	-----
Chemicals and allied products.....	4	3	1	-----	-----	-----	-----
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	6	-----	4	1	1	-----	-----
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	6	2	2	1	1	-----	-----
Transportation and communication.....	20	9	5	3	3	-----	-----
Trade.....	24	12	2	3	5	1	1
Domestic and personal service.....	12	5	2	2	2	-----	-----
Building and construction.....	20	9	9	2	-----	-----	-----
Agriculture and fishing.....	3	-----	2	-----	-----	-----	1
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	5	3	1	-----	1	-----	-----

About 48 percent of the strikes ending in August, which included almost the same proportion of the total workers involved, were settled with the assistance of Government officials or boards. Employers and union representatives negotiated the settlements of about 39 percent of the strikes which included 45 percent of the total work-

TABLE 6.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in August 1940

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	195	100.0	43,937	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	1	.5	136	.3
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	75	38.5	19,947	45.4
Government officials or boards.....	94	48.2	20,990	47.7
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	2	1.0	159	.4
Terminated without formal settlement.....	23	11.8	2,705	6.2

ers involved. In 12 percent of the strikes, which included only 6 percent of the total workers involved, no formal settlements were reached. In these cases the employees returned to work without settlement of the disputed issues, or they lost their jobs when the employer hired new workers, moved to another locality or went out of business.

Of the 195 strikes ending in August, 48 percent brought substantial gains to the workers, 33 percent were compromised, and 14 percent resulted in little or no gains to the workers. Of the workers involved in the strikes ending in the month, 41 percent won their demands, 47 percent obtained compromise settlements, and about 10 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 7.—Results of Strikes Ending in August 1940

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	195	100.0	43,937	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	93	47.7	18,141	41.3
Partial gains or compromises.....	64	32.8	20,818	47.4
Little or no gains to workers.....	28	14.4	4,224	9.6
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements.....	7	3.6	313	.7
Indeterminate.....	2	1.0	361	.8
Not reported.....	1	.5	80	.2

From the standpoint of the workers, the strikes ending in August which were over wage and hour issues were more successful than those in which union-organization matters were the major issues. Of the wage and hour strikes 48 percent were substantially won by the workers, 43 percent were compromised, and 7 percent brought them little or no gains. Of the union-organization strikes 44 percent were substantially won, 34 percent were compromised and 22 percent resulted in little or no gains for the workers.

Of the workers involved in the wage and hour strikes about 51 percent substantially won their demands, 40 percent obtained compromise settlements and 9 percent gained little or nothing. About 24 percent of the workers involved in the union-organization strikes substantially won their demands, 63 percent obtained compromise settlements, and for 13 percent the strikes resulted in little or no gains.

TABLE 3.—Results of Strikes Ending in August 1940, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
Number of strikes							
All issues.....	195	93	64	28	7	2	1
Wages and hours.....	56	27	24	4			1
Wage increase.....	43	18	22	3			
Wage decrease.....	4	3		1			
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	8	5	2				1
Hour decrease.....	1	1					
Union organization.....	100	44	34	22			
Recognition.....	18	7	3	8			
Recognition and wages.....	17	9	4	4			
Recognition and hours.....	1			1			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	19	12	5	2			
Closed or union shop.....	30	10	15	5			
Discrimination.....	9	5	3	1			
Strengthening bargaining position.....	6	1	4	1			
Miscellaneous.....	39	22	6	2	7	2	
Sympathy.....	4	1		1		2	
Rival unions or factions.....	5				5		
Jurisdiction.....	2				2		
Other.....	27	21	5	1			
Not reported.....	1		1				
Number of workers involved							
All issues.....	43,937	18,141	20,818	4,224	313	361	80
Wages and hours.....	10,272	5,197	4,094	901			80
Wage increase.....	8,634	3,896	4,057	681			
Wage decrease.....	627	407		220			
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	908	791	37				80
Hour decrease.....	103	103					
Union organization.....	19,858	4,749	12,576	2,533			
Recognition.....	2,042	583	159	1,300			
Recognition and wages.....	2,892	950	1,372	570			
Recognition and hours.....	19			19			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	1,348	1,038	177	133			
Closed or union shop.....	5,521	1,849	3,454	218			
Discrimination.....	4,368	209	4,121	38			
Strengthening bargaining position.....	3,668	120	3,293	255			
Miscellaneous.....	13,807	8,195	4,148	790	313	361	
Sympathy.....	1,067	6		700		361	
Rival unions or factions.....	111				111		
Jurisdiction.....	202				202		
Other.....	12,077	8,189	3,798	90			
Not reported.....	350		350				

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, OCTOBER 1940

THE United States Conciliation Service in October disposed of 507 situations involving 164,428 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties.

Of these situations, 318 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 145,851 workers. The remaining situations, involving 18,577 workers, were services rendered such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, consulting with labor and management, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 26 major industrial fields, such as building trades, and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 41 States, Alaska, and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, October 1940, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	318	145,851	189	18,577	507	164,428
Automobile.....	14	14,568	4	325	18	14,893
Building trades.....	26	8,058	30	419	56	8,477
Chemicals.....	11	4,118	3	3	14	4,121
Domestic and personal.....	8	246	3	8	11	254
Electrical equipment.....	15	2,627	9	42	24	2,669
Food.....	35	17,550	10	190	45	17,740
Furniture.....	7	857	3	660	10	1,517
Iron and steel.....	35	15,628	16	24	51	15,652
Leather.....	4	1,007	5	16	9	1,023
Lumber.....	7	1,125	1	2	8	1,127
Machinery.....	26	12,820	10	510	36	13,330
Maritime.....	4	9,636	4	840	8	10,476
Mining.....	3	1,701	2	2	5	1,703
Motion picture.....	1	40	1	6	2	46
Nonferrous metals.....	9	11,742	3	502	12	12,244
Paper.....	6	1,650	4	6	10	1,656
Petroleum.....	2	294	6	66	8	360
Printing.....	6	464			6	464
Rubber.....	2	1,187	5	10	7	1,197
Stone, clay, and glass.....	12	2,924	2	2	14	2,926
Textile.....	19	11,619	10	2,069	29	13,688
Tobacco.....	4	2,026	1	500	5	2,526
Trade.....	24	3,649	5	90	29	3,739
Transportation.....	21	3,602	10	274	31	3,876
Transportation equipment.....	7	15,567	2	301	9	15,868
Utilities.....	1	75	1	153	2	228
Unclassified.....	9	1,071	39	11,557	48	12,628

Industrial Disputes

1455

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by United States Conciliation Service, October 1940, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved
All States.....	318	145,851	189	18,577	507	164,428
Alabama.....	7	1,688	8	615	15	2,303
Alaska.....			1	1	1	1
Arkansas.....			1	1	1	1
California.....	20	11,619	10	5,897	30	17,516
Colorado.....	1	180			1	180
Connecticut.....	4	9,962	3	142	7	10,104
District of Columbia.....	6	379	11	23	17	402
Florida.....	11	3,047	2	2	13	3,049
Georgia.....	1	290	5	363	6	653
Illinois.....	15	983	10	48	25	1,031
Indiana.....	14	7,266	15	288	29	7,554
Iowa.....	3	5,165			3	5,165
Kansas.....	4	1,228	2	9	6	1,237
Kentucky.....	6	4,697	4	652	10	5,349
Louisiana.....	7	869	2	5,300	9	6,169
Maine.....	2	300			2	300
Maryland.....	8	4,537	4	5	12	4,542
Massachusetts.....	11	3,983	1	3	12	3,986
Michigan.....	26	19,825	7	507	33	20,332
Minnesota.....	8	2,212	2	154	10	2,366
Mississippi.....						
Missouri.....	14	4,340	1	1	1	1
Montana.....	2	144	2	7	16	4,347
New Hampshire.....	1	15			2	144
New Jersey.....	18	15,379	11	91	29	15,470
New York.....	19	13,369	21	278	40	13,647
North Carolina.....	6	3,600	1	39	7	3,639
Ohio.....	23	5,682	17	369	40	6,051
Oklahoma.....	4	247	1	120	5	367
Oregon.....	1	300	1	100	2	400
Pennsylvania.....	39	12,013	20	367	59	12,380
Rhode Island.....						
South Carolina.....	1	2,200	4	103	4	103
South Dakota.....	1	40	2	1,058	3	3,258
Tennessee.....	2	4,585			1	40
Texas.....	3	105	2	77	4	4,662
Utah.....	2	29	3	5	6	110
Vermont.....					2	29
Virginia.....	1	200			1	200
Washington.....	9	1,925	6	709	15	2,634
West Virginia.....	8	1,996	2	700	10	2,696
Wisconsin.....	4	288	3	502	7	790
Wyoming.....	6	1,164	3	31	9	1,195
			1	10	1	10

Labor Organizations

ANNUAL CONVENTIONS OF THE A. F. OF L. AND C. I. O.

THE sixtieth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor met in New Orleans, La., from November 18 to 29, inclusive. The third annual convention of the Congress of Industrial Organizations met in Atlantic City, N. J., from November 18 to 22, inclusive.

American Federation of Labor

With the addition of slightly more than 241,000 members, the paid-up membership of the American Federation of Labor, as reported to the 1940 convention, reached a total of 4,247,443. This was the highest membership in the history of the A. F. of L., surpassing by nearly 169,000 the previous peak of 4,078,740 recorded in 1920. The total membership for 1940 does not include the 80,000 members of the International Typographical Union, which was suspended by the executive council of the federation immediately after the 1939 convention in Cincinnati. It does, however, include the 225,000 members of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, which rejoined the federation in June of this year. These two changes account for considerably more than half of the total membership increase registered during the year.

As in the preceding year, the largest gain in membership was reported by the teamsters' union. This year that organization, which had changed its name by substituting the word "warehousemen" for the word "stablemen" paid the per capita tax to the federation for 393,700 members, or 43,700 more than in 1939. Other significant increases in membership of the unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were as follows:

	<i>Increase in membership</i>
Hotel and Restaurant Employees' International Alliance.....	17, 700
Laundry Workers' International Union.....	10, 800
International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers.....	9, 400
International Protective Association of Retail Clerks.....	8, 400
International Association of Fire Fighters.....	8, 200
Bakery and Confectionery Workers' International Union.....	8, 100
Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen.....	8, 000
Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers of the United States and Canada.....	7, 800
Seafarers International Union of North America.....	7, 700
International Molders' Union of North America.....	7, 100

LABOR PEACE

President Roosevelt sent a message of felicitation to the A. F. of L. upon the occasion of its sixtieth anniversary. A portion of his message dealt with the problem of labor unity:

Among the things which labor will contribute, is, I venture to suggest, an unselfish, a far-sighted, and a patriotic effort to bring about a just and an honorable peace within the now divided labor movement. Labor leaders, with the interest of the Nation at heart and the advantage of their followers in mind can, I am sure, find the way to reach such a peace.

Peace may not be easy to achieve, and the intricate problems involved may not be easy to solve. But when men of honor and good intentions sit down together they can work out a solution which will restore the much-needed harmony either by unity or by a sensible working arrangement.

Mr. Green's reply to the President was to the effect that the committee representing the American Federation of Labor stands ready and willing to meet with a committee representing the C. I. O. for the purpose of negotiating a settlement, at any time and any place.

NATIONAL DEFENSE

The position of the A. F. of L. with regard to national defense is outlined in the report of the executive council and was unanimously approved by the more than 500 delegates to the convention. In part this report read:

Labor is willing and eager to serve this Nation, for it is the land where democracy and a free labor movement still exist. We have a reverence for our institutions and their possibilities, and we want our efforts and service to be used for their extension and preservation. We want every safeguard against transforming our democracy into a dictatorship in order to defeat the machinations of dictators but in so doing we do not want to destroy the soul of what we would defend. Therefore, labor maintains that our defense program and policies whether technically during peace or war should comply with these fundamental principles:

1. Majority rule—decision to declare war to rest with Congress as the representative of the whole people.
2. Defense program in the hands of representatives of functional groups technically qualified to assume responsibility for various parts of the program and headed by a civilian administrator.
3. Labor should have representation on all defense agencies dealing with matters affecting labor's welfare. Representation means selection by the group concerned.
4. Administration should be centralized for planning and decision on principles but decentralized for execution under responsible representatives.
5. Equal representation for employees and employers on advisory groups connected with employment control.

When the defense program shifts into war conditions these additional principles become imperative:

- (a) Universal obligation to service for defense—industrial or military—under the above democratic conditions.
- (b) Labor should have representation on all policy-making and administrative agencies and draft boards.

(c) Labor standards and other provisions for social welfare must be maintained under emergency conditions as essential to efficient production as well as national morale.

Only by maintaining the right of functional groups to representation for participation in policy decisions and administration, even if only in an advisory capacity, can we hope to preserve the democratic way of life while we defend our right to it.

CHANGES IN CONSTITUTION

Amendments to the constitution of the American Federation of Labor can be adopted only by conventions and require two-thirds of the votes. This year the following significant changes were made in the constitution:

Per capita tax.—The special assessment of 1 cent per member per month in force since 1937 was eliminated. Several unions, including the International Typographical Union and the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, had objected to this special assessment as having been designed primarily to create "a war chest to fight the C. I. O." The International Typographical Union had refused to pay this assessment and was suspended. The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union rejoined the federation after it had received a letter from President Green to the effect that the executive council would recommend that the New Orleans convention eliminate this special assessment.

To guarantee sufficient revenue to the American Federation of Labor to carry on its organization work, the convention further amended the constitution to increase, temporarily, the regular 1-cent tax to 2 cents per capita. In the meantime a committee of three, including the secretary-treasurer of the federation, was authorized to study ways and means of providing a permanent and continuous revenue to the federation.

Suspension of unions.—The executive council of the A. F. of L. recommended and the convention unanimously adopted a change in the constitution to the effect that national and international unions be suspended only by a majority vote of conventions of the federation. However, in cases where two or more national or international unions unite and conspire to launch, create, and maintain an organization dual or rival to the A. F. of L., charges may be legally filed against these organizations, a hearing held, and if found guilty such organization may be suspended from affiliation with the A. F. of L. by the executive council, subject to appeal to the next annual convention of the federation as provided by the laws of the A. F. of L.

Salary increases.—Separate amendments to the constitution raised the salary of the president of the A. F. of L. from \$12,000 to \$20,000, and the salary of the secretary-treasurer from \$10,000 to \$18,000 per year.

RESOLUTIONS

More than 175 resolutions were handled by the convention, dealing with a large variety of labor problems, labor-management relations, labor legislation, social security, national defense, Negro membership, jurisdictional disputes, etc. The delegation of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, submitted a resolution which would have made it mandatory upon all national and international unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor to incorporate adequate constitutional provisions to deal with the problem of racketeering and which would have granted the executive council of the federation summary power to order the removal of any officer or officers convicted of any offense involving moral turpitude or conviction of using their official positions in their unions for personal gain. For this resolution was substituted a recommendation by the resolutions committee, which was adopted by the convention. This recommendation advises the affiliated national and international unions to amend their constitutions to make it possible for them to deal effectively with the problem of racketeering, and also states that "whenever the executive council has valid reason to believe that a trade-union official is guilty of any such offense and the national or international union in question seemingly evades its responsibility, the executive council shall be authorized to apply all of its influence to secure such action as will correct the situation."

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

President Green and Secretary-Treasurer Meany were unanimously reelected to their respective offices for the year 1941. All present members of the executive council were also reelected, including Harvey W. Brown, president of the International Machinists Union, appointed by the executive council to take the place of Arthur Wharton who resigned during the year, and W. C. Birthright, president of the Journeymen Barbers International Union, appointed to fill the place of the late John Coefield, president of the Association of Journeymen Plumbers and Steamfitters of the United States and Canada. The convention voted to hold its 1941 meeting in Seattle, Wash.

Congress of Industrial Organizations

As was the case in 1939, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, upon the advice of counsel, did not release any information on its membership or financial status. The voting strength, which may be regarded as an approximation of the membership of the national and international unions, organizing committees, and local industrial unions affiliated with the C. I. O., totaled 3,623,000. The following organizations were credited with more than 100,000 votes: United

Mine Workers of America, 600,000; Steel Workers Organizing Committee, 535,100; United Automobile Workers of America, 412,000; Textile Workers Union, 314,100; Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, 259,800; United Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers, 206,800; and Cannery and Agricultural Workers, 123,000.

LABOR PEACE

The convention approved the following recommendation of the committee on officers' reports, to which were referred all resolutions pertaining to labor unity as well as that portion of President Lewis's report entitled "Relations with A. F. of L.":

Your committee recommends that this convention continue its negotiating committee, consisting of Mr. John L. Lewis, Mr. Philip Murray, and Mr. Sidney Hillman, with the authority to participate in any future negotiations looking forward to real labor unity.

NATIONAL DEFENSE

The delegates approved the national defense policy framed by the executive board of the Congress of Industrial Organizations in June 1940. This policy was summarized by the committee on officers' reports as consisting of the following seven points:

1. Preservation of labor's rights as embodied in the National Labor Relations Act, the Wage and Hour Act, the Walsh-Healey Act, the Guffey Coal Stabilization Act, the Social Security Act, and other legislation.
2. The right of wage earners to organize into unions of their own choosing.
3. The right of organized wage earners to bargain collectively with their employers.
4. The right to freedom of speech, assembly, action, and worship.
5. Progressive improvement of real wages so as to improve purchasing power.
6. Progressive reduction of working hours for absorption of the unemployed and expanded production.
7. Legislation to insure security and opportunity for young and old people, the unemployed, and all the needy who are not otherwise provided for.

The convention also adopted President Lewis's recommendation that "labor be given representation in all the divisions of the National Defense Advisory Commission and in all policy-making governmental agencies equal in number and authority to representatives of industry."

In elaborating on the problem of national defense, Philip Murray, chairman of the Steel Workers Organizing Committee and vice president of the C. I. O., presented a specific outline of how this policy of the C. I. O. could be effectuated. He proposed that:

1. There should be created in each important industry directly affected by national defense, joint labor-industry-consumer and Government boards. On each board there should be an outstanding

representative of the particular industry and an outstanding representative of the labor organization having labor jurisdiction over that industry, and in the interest of public welfare the consumers should also be represented. The interests of the Nation as a whole should be safeguarded by a Government representative on each board.

2. A board of review for each industry with proper labor representation should clear on all matters in which dispute may arise in the industry.

3. A national board on which the President of the United States may be a member should make final decisions on all matters of dispute in each industry affected by the national defense situation. This board should also have a labor representative.

RESOLUTIONS

The convention adopted a large number of resolutions on labor legislation, national defense, social security, the preservation of peace and democratic institutions, the protection of conscripted workers, the poll tax, housing, unemployment, WPA and the youth problem, the organization of Ford Motor employees and workers in the aircraft industries, etc. A resolution on subversive activities in the United States contained a statement on the Americanism of the C. I. O. and proclaimed that—

We neither accept nor desire—and we firmly reject consideration of any policies emanating from totalitarianism, dictatorships, and foreign ideologies such as nazism, communism, and fascism. They have no place in this great modern labor movement. The Congress of Industrial Organizations condemns the dictatorships and totalitarianism of nazism, communism, and fascism as inimical to the welfare of labor and destructive of our form of Government.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

Philip Murray, chairman of the Steel Workers Organizing Committee and vice president of the Congress of Industrial Organizations, was unanimously elected president for the 1941 term. Four of the incumbent vice presidents—R. J. Thomas, of the United Automobile Workers, Sherman H. Dalrymple, of the United Rubber Workers, Emil Rieve, of the United Textile Workers, and Reid Robinson, of the Mine, Mill, and Smelter Workers Union—were reelected. James B. Carey, president of the Electrical, Radio, and Machine Workers Union, was reelected secretary-treasurer. The two vice-president vacancies, created by the elevation of Philip Murray to the presidency and by the resignation of Sidney Hillman of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, were filled by Frank Rosenblum, vice president of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers Union, and by Joseph Curran, president of the National Maritime Union.

TRADES AND LABOR CONGRESS OF CANADA, 1940

A TOTAL paid-up membership of 132,702 was reported to the 1940 meeting of the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, held in Vancouver, September 23-27, 1940.¹

The executive council's report stated that a decision had been reached to have subcommittees of an advisory committee to the council carry on studies on particular subjects, among them injunctions, unemployment insurance, wartime activities, international affairs, transference from wartime to peacetime economy, and the right to organize. The executive council reported unfavorably on the proposal referred to it on the matter of enacting legislation for family allowances.

Resolutions Adopted

Resolutions adopted favored the following:

Maintenance of the 8-hour day by the Dominion Government in war industries, in 3 shifts when required; fulfillment of conditions incorporated in collective trade-union agreements when making contracts for military supplies; and provision for recognition of unions and collective bargaining in all Government contracts. The Congress expressed approval of the Government's action in producing requisite war materials through Government-owned companies.

Retention on public pay rolls after the war of all men in the armed forces until placed in steady jobs in Canadian industries; and provision for the same allowances in pay, and for families, to be made for temporary training periods as for the regular military forces.

Measures "to insure a proper distribution and use of foodstuffs in Canada."

Assumption by the Government of "full responsibility for the adequate maintenance of the employable unemployed."

Enactment of Dominion legislation similar to the Wagner Act in the United States.

Increase of wages for civic employees.

Lengthening of hours of work in industry only by mutual agreement.

Legislation compelling all employers to provide annual vacations with pay for all employees with over a year's service.

Inclusion of restaurant, street-railway, and motor-coach employees under the workmen's compensation act.

Adoption of legislation to prevent home work.

Appointment of international trade-union representatives on all administrative boards and commissions involving labor interest.

Payment of old-age pensions for retired workers regardless of any aid their children might be able to extend.

Other resolutions protested against profiteering in war contracts and in the necessities of life, and opposed competition of prison labor with free labor.

¹ Canadian Labor Gazette, Ottawa, October 1940; and Canadian Congress Journal, Toronto, October 1940.

Labor Turn-Over

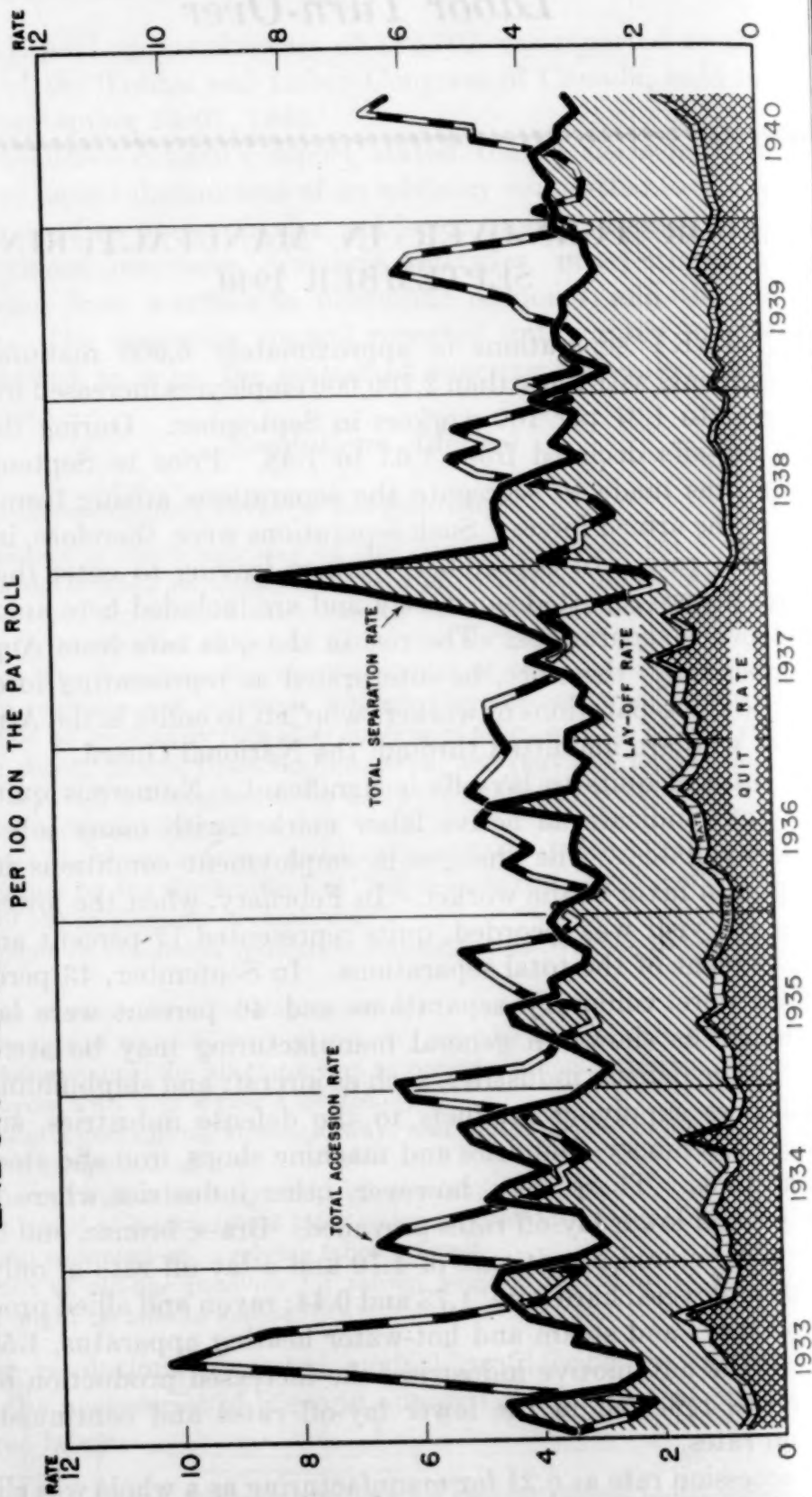
LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, SEPTEMBER 1940

VOLUNTARY separations in approximately 6,600 manufacturing establishments with more than 2,700,000 employees increased from 1.10 in August to 1.37 per 100 workers in September. During the same period lay-offs declined from 1.63 to 1.48. Prior to September no attempt was made to segregate the separations arising from enlistments in the armed forces. Such separations were, therefore, included in the quit rate. In September, workers leaving to enter the Army and Navy were reported separately and are included here among the miscellaneous separations. The rise in the quit rate from August to September may, therefore, be interpreted as representing forces unrelated to the separations of workers who left to enlist in the Army and Navy or who are mobilized through the National Guard.

The ratio of quits to lay-offs is significant. Numerous quits with few lay-offs indicate an active labor market with many job opportunities available. The changes in employment conditions in 1940 have been in favor of the worker. In February, when the lowest unit rate for the year was recorded, quits represented 17 percent and lay-offs 75 percent of the total separations. In September, 43 percent of the total were voluntary separations and 46 percent were lay-offs. The change as shown in general manufacturing may be attributed mostly to the defense industries, such as aircraft and shipbuilding, and to industries supplying products to the defense industries, such as electrical machinery, foundries and machine shops, iron and steel, and machine tools. There were, however, other industries where higher quit rates and lower lay-off rates prevailed. Brass, bronze, and copper products registered a quit rate of 1.70 and a lay-off rate of only 0.37 per 100 employees; hardware, 1.73 and 0.44; rayon and allied products, 1.07 and 0.47; and steam and hot-water heating apparatus, 1.58 and 0.50. In the automotive industries, the increased production of new models was reflected in the lower lay-off rates and continued high accession rates.

The accession rate at 6.21 for manufacturing as a whole was slightly lower than for August. There was a marked decrease in the rate for rehiring and a corresponding increase in the rate for new hirings compared with the preceding month.

LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 135 Industries ¹

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1940.....	0.63	0.62	0.67	0.74	0.77	0.78	0.85	1.10	1.37				
1939.....	.85	.64	.82	.76	.68	.73	.70	.82	1.02	0.93	0.83	0.69	0.79
Discharges:													
1940.....	.14	.16	.15	.13	.13	.14	.14	.16	.16				
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12	.13
Lay-offs: ²													
1940.....	2.55	2.67	2.53	2.69	2.78	2.32	2.25	1.63	1.48				
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65	2.22
Miscellaneous separations: ³													
1940.....	.11	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.11	.11	.21				
Total:													
1940.....	3.43	3.56	3.46	3.66	3.78	3.36	3.35	3.00	3.22				
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46	3.14
Accessions: ⁴													
Rehirings,													
1940.....	1.96	1.26	1.38	1.42	1.49	2.06	1.94	3.04	2.20				
New hirings,													
1940.....	1.78	1.72	1.56	1.63	1.87	2.70	2.83	3.59	4.01				
Total:													
1940.....	3.74	2.98	2.94	3.05	3.36	4.76	4.77	6.63	6.21				
1939.....	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84	4.07

¹ The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

² Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

³ Beginning with January 1940, miscellaneous separations, such as deaths, permanently disabled, retired on pensions, etc., have been reported separately. Such separations were formerly reported under the classification "quits and miscellaneous separations."

⁴ Beginning with January 1940, accessions have been separated into two classifications: rehiring, which include workers hired after a separation of 3 months or less, and other employees hired.

Labor Turn-Over by Industries

In addition to the rates for all industries combined, detailed labor turn-over data are available for 39 separate manufacturing industries.

Although notable changes occurred in the various types of separations, the rate for total separations and accessions in September remained virtually at the same level as in the preceding month except in a few industries. Lower total separation rates prevailed in the textile group. Marked decreases in the accession rates occurred in the automobiles and bodies industry with accession rates of 22.52 in August and 14.87 in September; automobile parts, with 19.19 and 14.23; and men's clothing, with 6.00 and 2.54 per 100 employees.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries ¹

Class of turn-over	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1939	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1939	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1940
	Agricultural Imple- ments			Aircraft			Aluminum ²		
Separations.....	1.76	2.27	3.44	4.12	3.76	5.98	3.96	3.06	1.45
Quits.....	.77	.73	.51	3.09	2.96	1.46	.96	1.11	1.06
Discharges.....	.11	.08	.08	.37	.39	.40	.20	.11	.06
Lay-offs.....	.78	1.32	2.85	.37	.30	4.12	1.93	1.12	.33
Miscellaneous separa- tions ³10	.14	-----	.29	.11	-----	.87	.72	-----
Accessions ⁴	3.37	4.97	6.89	9.74	7.91	7.23	5.06	5.25	3.71
Rehirings.....	.75	2.63	-----	.16	.15	-----	.85	2.51	-----
New hirings.....	2.62	2.34	-----	9.58	7.76	-----	4.21	2.74	-----
	Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts			Boots and shoes		
Separations.....	2.84	3.42	2.82	2.97	3.33	2.92	3.02	2.81	3.20
Quits.....	1.04	.77	.60	1.44	1.18	.98	.89	.82	.93
Discharges.....	.07	.07	.07	.32	.23	.13	.08	.15	.11
Lay-offs.....	1.64	2.47	2.15	1.11	1.80	1.81	1.91	1.74	2.16
Miscellaneous separa- tions ³09	.11	-----	.10	.12	-----	.14	.10	-----
Accessions ⁴	14.87	22.52	17.67	14.23	19.19	16.55	2.50	2.72	1.82
Rehirings.....	9.05	19.05	-----	3.42	9.20	-----	1.38	1.29	-----
New hirings.....	5.82	3.47	-----	10.81	9.99	-----	1.12	1.43	-----
	Brass, bronze, and copper products			Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cast-iron pipe		
Separations.....	2.41	2.56	1.03	4.26	3.72	3.96	1.80	1.36	2.04
Quits.....	1.70	1.23	.58	1.74	1.36	1.38	.66	.61	.82
Discharges.....	.22	.13	.07	.24	.15	.11	.28	.13	.15
Lay-offs.....	.37	1.15	.38	2.15	2.14	2.47	.78	.59	1.07
Miscellaneous separa- tions ³12	.05	-----	.13	.07	-----	.08	.03	-----
Accessions ⁴	7.36	5.94	10.11	3.98	4.98	9.89	4.19	2.44	2.47
Rehirings.....	.74	.90	-----	1.36	1.68	-----	.51	.08	-----
New hirings.....	6.62	5.04	-----	2.62	3.30	-----	3.68	2.36	-----
	Cement			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Separations.....	2.02	1.84	3.31	3.26	2.32	5.42	3.82	3.95	2.96
Quits.....	.98	.31	.96	1.66	1.47	1.77	1.95	1.79	1.70
Discharges.....	.09	.10	.08	.08	.10	.21	.23	.25	.25
Lay-offs.....	.76	1.27	2.27	1.29	.54	3.44	1.18	1.80	1.01
Miscellaneous separa- tions ³19	.16	-----	.23	.21	-----	.46	.11	-----
Accessions ⁴	1.84	4.21	3.40	3.92	6.69	3.35	6.28	5.50	6.56
Rehirings.....	.56	2.19	-----	.88	1.33	-----	2.46	2.48	-----
New hirings.....	1.28	2.02	-----	3.04	5.36	-----	3.82	3.02	-----
	Dyeing and finishing textiles			Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops		
Separations.....	2.24	2.38	1.80	2.19	2.05	1.61	2.55	2.04	2.23
Quits.....	1.21	.87	1.00	1.12	.87	.89	1.16	.99	.75
Discharges.....	.17	.31	.19	.14	.12	.10	.20	.19	.11
Lay-offs.....	.59	1.09	.61	.55	.80	.62	1.02	.77	1.37
Miscellaneous separa- tions ³27	.11	-----	.38	.26	-----	.17	.09	-----
Accessions ⁴	5.76	4.49	4.40	6.09	5.51	4.64	4.38	5.07	5.41
Rehirings.....	1.56	2.80	-----	1.42	1.55	-----	.90	1.03	-----
New hirings.....	4.20	1.69	-----	4.67	3.96	-----	3.48	4.04	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries¹—Continued

Class of turn-over	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1939	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1939	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1940
	Furniture			Glass			Hardware		
Separations.....	3.21	3.38	2.66	1.74	1.54	1.30	2.51	2.54	1.51
Quits.....	1.53	1.32	1.06	.63	.73	.62	1.73	1.62	.79
Discharges.....	.26	.27	.21	.08	.11	.08	.17	.14	.17
Lay-offs.....	1.18	1.71	1.39	.81	.66	.60	.44	.71	.55
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²24	.08	-----	.22	.04	-----	.17	.07	-----
Accessions ⁴	5.72	5.05	5.61	4.02	4.69	6.22	6.13	6.76	6.92
Rehirings.....	.99	1.44	-----	2.52	2.68	-----	1.57	1.95	-----
New hirings.....	4.73	3.61	-----	1.50	2.01	-----	4.56	4.81	-----
	Iron and steel			Knit goods			Machine tools		
Separations.....	1.68	1.42	1.00	2.79	3.39	2.61	2.61	1.97	2.06
Quits.....	1.07	.71	.59	1.10	1.03	1.22	1.92	1.54	1.38
Discharges.....	.08	.08	.05	.10	.11	.19	.40	.25	.13
Lay-offs.....	.37	.45	.36	1.44	2.24	1.20	.06	.10	.55
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²16	.18	-----	.15	.01	-----	.23	.08	-----
Accessions ⁴	2.57	3.71	10.23	4.16	4.14	3.85	4.97	4.20	5.34
Rehirings.....	.58	.83	-----	1.94	2.04	-----	.15	.48	-----
New hirings.....	1.99	2.88	-----	2.22	2.10	-----	4.82	3.72	-----
	Men's clothing			Paints and varnishes			Paper and pulp		
Separations.....	4.37	2.74	2.66	2.66	1.69	2.26	3.16	2.13	1.93
Quits.....	.87	.95	.88	1.31	.87	.86	1.45	.96	1.11
Discharges.....	.10	.14	.16	.37	.27	.28	.14	.18	.19
Lay-offs.....	3.33	1.57	1.62	.82	.51	1.12	1.18	.81	.63
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²07	.08	-----	.16	.04	-----	.39	.18	-----
Accessions ⁴	2.54	6.00	2.35	3.81	2.83	3.26	1.87	2.00	4.24
Rehirings.....	.88	2.56	-----	.74	.77	-----	.57	.52	-----
New hirings.....	1.66	3.44	-----	3.07	2.06	-----	1.30	1.48	-----
	Petroleum refining			Planing mills ³			Printing and publish- ing: Book and job		
Separations.....	2.57	1.63	3.09	3.89	3.23	4.09	4.14	3.41	3.45
Quits.....	.78	.60	1.26	1.53	1.62	2.32	.96	.67	.62
Discharges.....	.04	.04	.08	.17	.17	.30	.13	.18	.13
Lay-offs.....	1.40	.87	1.75	1.70	1.40	1.47	2.84	2.51	2.70
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²35	.12	-----	.49	.04	-----	.21	.05	-----
Accessions ⁴	1.48	1.94	1.81	6.34	5.12	7.03	4.56	5.56	4.76
Rehirings.....	.40	.74	-----	1.53	1.45	-----	2.08	2.57	-----
New hirings.....	1.08	1.20	-----	4.81	3.67	-----	2.48	2.99	-----
	Printing and publishing: Newspapers			Radios and phono- graphs			Rayon and allied products		
Separations.....	2.21	1.54	1.32	4.56	2.83	3.18	1.74	1.26	2.52
Quits.....	.54	.41	.30	2.26	1.86	2.10	1.07	.65	.81
Discharges.....	.14	.06	.22	.21	.24	.22	.16	.10	.19
Lay-offs.....	1.31	1.02	.80	1.93	.57	.86	.47	.50	1.25
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²22	.05	-----	.16	.16	-----	.04	.01	-----
Accessions ⁴	2.70	2.65	3.36	6.40	8.84	16.50	2.38	2.88	2.77
Rehirings.....	1.04	1.09	-----	1.30	1.31	-----	1.01	.80	-----
New hirings.....	1.66	1.56	-----	5.10	7.53	-----	1.37	2.08	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 39 Manufacturing Industries ¹—Continued

Class of turn-over	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1939	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1939	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	Sep- tember 1940
	Rubber boots and shoes			Rubber tires			Sawmills		
Separations.....	1.67	1.95	2.05	2.78	1.47	1.48	4.77	3.20	4.84
Quits.....	1.04	.92	1.01	.81	.53	.75	2.28	1.83	1.92
Discharges.....	.16	.09	.04	.06	.04	.09	.20	.15	.18
Lay-offs.....	.19	.56	1.00	1.73	.83	.64	1.89	1.18	2.74
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²28	.38	-----	.18	.07	-----	.40	.04	-----
Accessions ⁴	5.22	5.12	4.04	3.34	4.12	5.07	5.91	7.17	5.92
Rehirings.....	2.02	1.73	-----	.77	1.64	-----	1.87	2.68	-----
New hirings.....	3.20	3.39	-----	2.57	2.48	-----	4.04	4.49	-----
	Shipbuilding			Silk and rayon goods			Slaughtering and meat packing		
Separations.....	6.08	7.21	2.90	5.30	5.13	3.92	6.86	9.02	7.72
Quits.....	1.53	1.29	1.35	1.43	1.08	1.30	1.18	.86	1.03
Discharges.....	.28	.39	.17	.07	.18	.08	.14	.19	.11
Lay-offs.....	4.03	5.46	1.38	3.72	3.81	2.54	5.32	7.72	6.58
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²24	.07	-----	.08	.06	-----	.22	.25	-----
Accessions ⁴	9.96	9.19	6.57	6.55	4.63	3.90	5.90	6.42	9.25
Rehirings.....	2.58	1.78	-----	3.15	2.15	-----	3.71	4.95	-----
New hirings.....	7.38	7.41	-----	3.40	2.48	-----	2.19	1.47	-----
	Steam and hot-water heating apparatus			Structural and orna- mental iron works ²			Woolen and worsted goods		
Separations.....	2.48	2.47	2.02	6.43	4.54	4.26	4.26	6.24	5.25
Quits.....	1.58	1.48	1.31	2.46	1.48	.90	2.00	1.40	1.37
Discharges.....	.29	.29	.19	.07	.11	.16	.08	.23	.08
Lay-offs.....	.50	.65	.52	3.69	2.89	3.20	1.99	4.41	3.80
Miscellaneous separa- tions ²11	.05	-----	.21	.06	-----	.19	.20	-----
Accessions ⁴	7.70	6.77	5.36	10.14	8.71	8.19	7.52	8.15	5.99
Rehirings.....	.57	.22	-----	2.23	2.77	-----	2.13	3.37	-----
New hirings.....	7.13	6.55	-----	7.91	5.94	-----	5.39	4.78	-----

¹ No individual industry data shown unless reports cover at least 25 percent of industrial employment.² Included this month for the first time.³ Prior to January 1940, miscellaneous separations were included with quits.⁴ No break-down of accessions prior to January 1940.

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

EFFECT OF 40-HOUR WEEK UNDER WAGE AND HOUR LAW

THE Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor has estimated that nearly 2,000,000 persons are affected in any week of average activity by the provision of the Fair Labor Standards Act making the normal workweek 40 hours, effective October 24, 1940.¹ Beginning on that date, workers engaged in interstate commerce or the production of goods for interstate commerce were entitled to be paid at one and one-half times the regular hourly rate of pay for hours in excess of 40 per week. A spot check in any week, the Administrator stated, would probably show that about 2,650,000 wage earners were working more than 40 hours a week. However, as more than 700,000 of these were already being paid time and a half for overtime when the normal workweek was reduced from 42 to 40 hours, the number of employees directly affected is reduced to somewhat less than 2,000,000.

Returns for another week would not necessarily show the same wage earners working more than 40 hours. The Administrator foresees that in the course of the year a great many more workers will be affected by the overtime requirements, or will be released from work at the end of 40 hours instead of being required to work the longer hours previously customary.

The estimated number of workers subject to the terms of the law and working more than 40 hours a week is shown, by States, in the following table.

¹ Press release No. 1103, Washington, October 23, 1940.

Estimated Employees Coverage of Fair Labor Standards Act

State	Covered employees		State	Covered employees	
	Total ¹	Working more than 40 hours a week		Total ¹	Working more than 40 hours a week
United States.....	12, 611, 700	2, 668, 400	Nevada.....	10, 100	4, 816
Alabama.....	173, 300	50, 512	New Hampshire.....	63, 600	15, 680
Arizona.....	25, 300	12, 208	New Jersey.....	569, 100	107, 184
Arkansas.....	66, 600	22, 960	New Mexico.....	25, 300	3, 920
California.....	505, 800	95, 312	New York.....	1, 516, 100	238, 448
Colorado.....	69, 800	14, 336	North Carolina.....	322, 200	79, 632
Connecticut.....	314, 700	72, 688	North Dakota.....	18, 800	5, 376
Delaware.....	28, 900	8, 288	Ohio.....	848, 400	197, 120
Florida.....	102, 700	37, 632	Oklahoma.....	104, 600	22, 960
Georgia.....	215, 000	62, 384	Oregon.....	95, 000	21, 952
Idaho.....	28, 000	9, 296	Pennsylvania.....	1, 280, 100	182, 224
Illinois.....	975, 900	208, 768	Rhode Island.....	125, 600	27, 216
Indiana.....	370, 700	82, 544	South Carolina.....	156, 200	28, 784
Iowa.....	141, 000	39, 872	South Dakota.....	22, 000	9, 744
Kansas.....	110, 400	26, 096	Tennessee.....	212, 000	66, 528
Kentucky.....	181, 500	32, 144	Texas.....	330, 000	114, 352
Louisiana.....	136, 500	35, 392	Utah.....	32, 200	10, 752
Maine.....	90, 000	18, 256	Ve mont.....	36, 400	10, 416
Maryland.....	211, 300	40, 544	Virginia.....	213, 400	48, 608
Massachusetts.....	643, 200	161, 056	Washington.....	144, 900	17, 808
Michigan.....	729, 700	146, 496	West Virginia.....	216, 900	20, 944
Minnesota.....	175, 200	29, 568	Wisconsin.....	297, 700	71, 792
Mississippi.....	71, 400	25, 424	Wyoming.....	20, 700	4, 480
Missouri.....	332, 400	90, 608	District of Columbia.....	31, 300	6, 272
Montana.....	40, 500	6, 608	Alaska.....	3, 000	-----
Nebraska.....	64, 200	22, 400	Hawaii.....	8, 000	-----
			Puerto Rico.....	104, 100	-----

¹ Based on April 1939 Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey.

Wages and Hours of Labor

UNION WAGES AND HOURS IN THE PRINTING TRADES, JUNE 1, 1940¹

Summary

THE average union wage rate per hour for all of the printing trades in the 72 cities covered in a survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on June 1, 1940, was \$1.201. The average for the book and job trades was \$1.131 and for the newspaper trades \$1.331. The rates of over 97 percent of the book and job membership were between 50 cents and \$1.90 per hour, with 65.6 percent between \$1.00 and \$1.50 per hour. Rates for newspaper members ranged from 45 cents to \$2.667 per hour, although 89.4 percent of the day workers and 93.4 percent of the night workers had rates between \$1.00 and \$1.80 per hour.

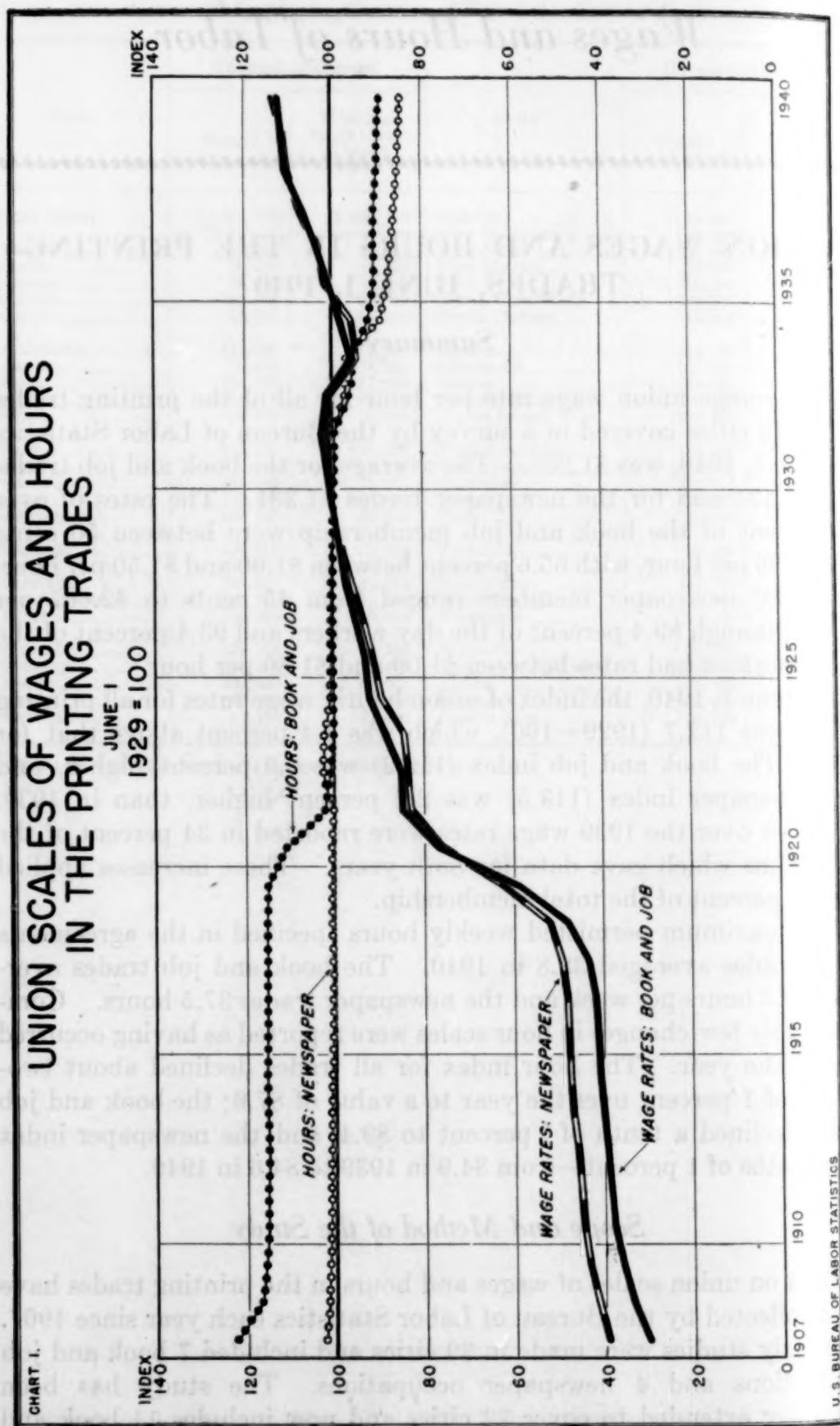
On June 1, 1940, the index of union hourly wage rates for all printing trades was 112.7 (1929=100), which was 1.4 percent above that for 1939. The book and job index (112.2) was 0.9 percent higher, and the newspaper index (113.5) was 2.2 percent higher, than in 1939. Increases over the 1939 wage rates were reported in 34 percent of the quotations which gave data for both years. These increases applied to 35.9 percent of the total membership.

The maximum permitted weekly hours specified in the agreements of all trades averaged 38.8 in 1940. The book and job trades averaged 39.5 hours per week and the newspaper trades 37.5 hours. Comparatively few changes in hour scales were reported as having occurred during the year. The hour index for all trades declined about two-tenths of 1 percent over the year to a value of 87.6; the book and job index declined a tenth of 1 percent to 89.4; and the newspaper index four-tenths of 1 percent—from 84.9 in 1939 to 84.6 in 1940.

Scope and Method of the Study

Data on union scales of wages and hours in the printing trades have been collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics each year since 1907. The early studies were made in 39 cities and included 7 book and job occupations and 4 newspaper occupations. The study has been gradually extended to cover 72 cities and now includes 11 book and

¹ Prepared by Frank S. McElroy of the Bureau's Industrial Relations Division, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief.



job occupations and 8 newspaper occupations. These cities are located in 40 States and the District of Columbia.²

As far as possible the scales covered were those actually in effect on June 1. The collection of the data was made by agents of the Bureau who personally visited some responsible official of each local union included in the study. Each scale was verified by the union official interviewed, and was further checked by comparison with the written agreements when copies were available. Interviews were obtained with 451 union representatives and 2,286 quotations of scales were received. The union membership covered by these contractual scales of wages and hours was 62,991 in the book and job trades and 34,577 in the newspaper trades.

DEFINITIONS

A union scale is a scale of wages and hours agreed to by an employer (or group of employers) and a labor organization for persons who are actually working or would be working if there were work to be done in that locality. A union scale usually fixes a limit in one direction, that is, a minimum wage rate and maximum hours of work, with specific provisions for overtime.

A collective agreement is a mutual arrangement between a union and an employer (or group of employers) regarding wages and hours and other working conditions. Collective agreements are usually written and are signed by both parties. The Bureau has included scales in oral agreements only in those cases where there was clear evidence that the rates were actually in effect.

² The following are the cities covered. The numerals indicate the population group in which the city is included in tables 10 and 11.

North and Pacific

Baltimore, Md., II.	Detroit, Mich., I.	New Haven, Conn., IV.	Salt Lake City, Utah, IV.
Boston, Mass., II.	Duluth, Minn., IV.	New York, N. Y., I.	San Francisco, Calif., II.
Buffalo, N. Y., II.	Erie, Pa., IV.	Omaha, Nebr., IV.	Scranton, Pa., IV.
Butte, Mont., V.	Grand Rapids, Mich., IV.	Peoria, Ill., IV.	Seattle, Wash., III.
Charleston, W. Va., V.	Indianapolis, Ind., III.	Philadelphia, Pa., I.	South Bend, Ind., IV.
Chicago, Ill., I.	Kansas City, Mo., III.	Pittsburgh, Pa., II.	Spokane, Wash., IV.
Cincinnati, Ohio, III.	Los Angeles, Calif., I.	Portland, Maine, V.	Springfield, Mass., IV.
Cleveland, Ohio, II.	Madison, Wis., V.	Portland, Oreg., III.	Toledo, Ohio, III.
Columbus, Ohio, III.	Manchester, N. H., V.	Providence, R. I., III.	Washington, D. C., II.
Davenport, Iowa, included in Rock Island (Ill.) district.	Milwaukee, Wis., II.	Reading, Pa., IV.	Wichita, Kans., IV.
Dayton, Ohio, IV.	Minneapolis, Minn., III.	Rochester, N. Y., III.	Worcester, Mass., IV.
Denver, Colo., III.	Moline, Ill., included in Rock Island (Ill.) district.	Rock Island (Ill.) district, IV.	York, Pa., V.
Des Moines, Iowa, IV.	Newark, N. J., III.	St. Louis, Mo., II.	Youngstown, Ohio, IV.
		St. Paul, Minn., III.	

South and Southwest

Atlanta, Ga., III.	El Paso, Tex., IV.	Louisville, Ky., III.	Oklahoma City, Okla., IV.
Birmingham, Ala., III.	Houston, Tex., III.	Memphis, Tenn., III.	Phoenix, Ariz., V.
Charleston, S. C., V.	Jackson, Miss., V.	Nashville, Tenn., IV.	Richmond, Va., IV.
Charlotte, N. C., V.	Jacksonville, Fla., IV.	New Orleans, La., III.	San Antonio, Tex., IV.
Dallas, Tex., III.	Little Rock, Ark., V.	Norfolk, Va., IV.	

Apprentices and foremen.—A young person working in the trade for a definite number of years, for the purpose of learning the trade, and receiving instruction as an element of compensation, is considered an apprentice. Scales for apprentices are not included.

No rates are included for strictly supervising foremen or for individuals who are paid unusual rates because of some personal qualification as distinct from the usual trade qualifications.

Union rates and actual rates.—As previously stated, the rates of wages and hours included in this report were obtained from union business agents, secretaries, and other officials of local unions in the 72 cities visited. A large majority of the rates were recorded in written agreements, copies of which in most cases were given to the agents for the Bureau's files. If no written records were on file in the union office, the Bureau representative listed the scales on a schedule which the union official then signed. If the Bureau representative had any reason to doubt the accuracy of these scales, he made further inquiry from persons who might be informed about the situation. It is believed that the scales collected in this survey accurately represent the union scales in effect on June 1, 1940.

It does not necessarily follow, however, that these rates are in all cases the actual wages paid or hours worked. The union scale usually fixes the minimum wages and maximum hours. More experienced and skilled workers may earn more than the union rate. This is especially true during periods of prosperity, when a plentiful supply of jobs creates competitive bidding for the better workmen. In periods of depression, in order to spread or share available work, actual hours worked are sometimes less than those provided in the union agreement. Where such a share-the-work policy was formally adopted by the union and was in effect for the majority of the members, the existing scale of hours was used in this report rather than the theoretical scale appearing in the written agreement.

Union rates and prevailing rates.—This report is concerned only with the contract scales for union members. No attempt was made to discover what proportions of all the workers in the different occupations were union members. As union strength varies from city to city and trade to trade, the prevailing scale for any one occupation in any one city may or may not coincide with the union scale. If practically all the workers of a particular trade belong to the local union, the union scale will be equivalent to the prevailing scale in that community. On the other hand, if the proportion of craftsmen belonging to the union is small, the union scale may not be the actual prevailing scale.

Averages.—The averages for each trade given in this report are weighted according to the number of members in the various local unions. When a union representative reported more than one occupational-wage rate he was requested to divide the total membership of his local union, allotting to each quotation the number normally working for the rate specified. Members who happened to be unemployed on June 1 were included in the quotation of the rate that they regularly receive when working. Honorary and inactive members were excluded, as were members employed in government printing plants where wage scales are not established through agreements with the unions. In computing the averages each particular wage rate or hour scale was weighted by the number of members reported in that particular quotation. Thus the averages reflect not only the actual rates provided in the union agreements but also the number of persons presumably benefiting from these rates.

Index numbers.—In the series of index numbers the percentage change from year to year is based on aggregates computed from the quotations of unions which furnished reports for identical occupations in both years. The membership weights in both of the aggregates used in each year-to-year comparison are those reported for the second year. The index for each year is computed by multiplying the index for the preceding year by the ratio of the aggregates so obtained. The index numbers were revised on this basis in 1936 in order to eliminate the influence of changes in union membership which obscure the real changes in wages and hours.

For the trend of union rates, the table of indexes should be consulted; for a comparison of wage rates between trades or cities at a given time, the table of averages should be used.

Trend From 1907 to 1940

Hourly wage rates.—There has been a general upward trend of union hourly wage rates for the printing trades in nearly every year since 1907. Only in 1932 and 1933 were the index numbers lower than in the immediately preceding year. (See table 1.)

The year-to-year increase in average wage rates was gradual until 1918. Wage increases in the latter part of 1918 and in the spring of 1919 brought the 1919 index 22 percent above that of 1918. This was followed by a 28-percent increase in 1920. In contrast to wages in most other industries and trades, rates in the union printing trades were not generally reduced during the post-war depression. On the contrary, average wage rates increased 9 percent between May 1920 and May 1921.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in All Printing Trades, 1907 to 1940*

[1929=100.0]

Year	Hourly wage rates			Weekly hours		
	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper	All printing	Book and job	Newspaper
1907	(1)	30.0	39.2	(1)	122.4	102.3
1908	(1)	33.3	41.3	(1)	116.8	101.8
1909	(1)	35.7	43.1	(1)	115.8	101.5
1910	(1)	37.6	44.6	(1)	115.4	101.3
1911	40.0	38.6	45.2	111.6	115.4	101.3
1912	40.7	39.3	46.0	111.5	115.3	101.1
1913	41.5	40.0	47.0	111.4	115.3	101.0
1914	42.3	40.9	47.5	111.3	115.3	100.8
1915	42.5	41.1	47.8	111.3	115.3	100.7
1916	42.9	41.7	48.0	111.3	115.3	100.6
1917	44.4	43.2	49.2	111.3	115.3	100.6
1918	48.3	47.8	51.6	111.3	115.3	100.6
1919	59.1	58.9	62.2	111.3	115.2	100.8
1920	75.7	76.9	76.1	108.1	110.9	100.7
1921	83.0	84.7	82.8	101.5	102.1	100.4
1922	83.8	85.0	83.5	101.1	100.8	102.4
1923	86.4	88.3	84.4	100.7	100.2	102.2
1924	90.6	92.0	89.5	100.3	100.2	100.8
1925	92.0	92.9	91.1	100.3	100.3	100.5
1926	94.0	95.0	93.1	100.2	100.1	100.7
1927	96.7	97.3	95.9	100.1	100.1	100.4
1928	98.5	98.7	98.3	100.1	100.1	100.2
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	101.5	101.8	101.0	99.9	99.9	99.8
1931	102.1	102.5	101.3	99.8	99.9	99.8
1932	101.3	101.4	101.1	96.5	96.1	97.3
1933	95.3	95.8	94.5	95.7	95.1	96.8
1934	97.3	98.4	95.8	90.8	91.8	89.1
1935	101.0	100.6	101.6	89.3	90.4	87.6
1936	103.3	103.5	103.1	88.9	90.5	86.5
1937	106.8	106.7	107.0	88.5	90.3	85.7
1938	110.2	110.4	109.8	88.1	89.9	85.3
1939	111.2	111.2	111.1	87.8	89.6	84.9
1940	112.7	112.2	113.5	87.6	89.4	84.6

¹ Combined data for the years 1907-10 not available.

Both the book and job and the newspaper workers participated in the substantial advance during the 1918 to 1921 period. The book and job wage-rate index, however, recorded a net gain of 77.2 percent between 1918 and 1921 as compared with one of 60.5 percent in the newspaper index.

After 1921 the upward movement of average rates slackened appreciably, but continued until 1931, when the index for all printing trades reached 102.1 (1929=100). In the following 2 years rates declined, bringing the index in 1933 down to 95.3, a value slightly below that of 1927. Since 1933 each year's index has recorded an advance in average rates, the index for all union printing trades being 12.7 percent higher on June 1, 1940, than in 1929.

Maximum weekly hours.—Although there has been a consistent trend toward shorter weekly hours in the printing trades throughout the period covered by the index series, the major changes in average hours have occurred within relatively short periods, followed by relatively long periods of comparatively little change.

After a reduction of 5.4 percent between 1907 and 1909 the average weekly hours allowed under union agreements in book and job work remained practically unchanged for 10 years. As a result of an intensified drive by the unions for the 44-hour week, during 1920 and 1921, there was a substantial reduction in the index of working hours. The average workweek in 1922 was 12.5 percent below the average for 1919. No further important changes in book and job hours occurred until the prolonged depression. The efforts to share the available work during this period of slack employment, through reductions in allowed working time, first appeared in the average of weekly hours for 1932. A further extension of the 40-hour week under the NRA widened the scope of hour reductions, and in 1935 the average full-time week of union members in book and job work was 9.5 percent lower than in 1931. In subsequent years weekly hours declined gradually, but in 1940 the index was only 1.2 percent lower than in 1935.

There was no important change in the average full-time hours of union newspaper workers between 1907 and 1931 other than a slight upturn in 1922, the effect of which was nearly canceled by a decline in 1924. During the entire period from 1907 to 1931 the average full-time week in the newspaper occupations declined only 2.5 percent. From 1931 to 1936, however, the decline was rapid, the average being reduced 13.3 percent in 5 years, more than half of this reduction occurring in the latter half of 1933 and the early part of 1934. Since 1936 the newspaper average declined somewhat more rapidly than the book and job average, but the decrease was only 2.2 percent in the 4 years.

In 1907, when the printing-trades surveys were begun, union members in book and job shops had an average full-time workweek of approximately 54.1 hours, which was about 20 percent longer than that of members in newspaper plants, whose maximum hours averaged approximately 45.3 per week. By 1929 the average for book and job work decreased about 20 percent while the newspaper average declined only a little over 2 percent. The averages of full-time hours for each of the two groups in 1929 were, therefore, nearly equal—a fraction over 44 hours per week. Since 1929, however, there was a reduction in the average for newspaper work of 15.4 percent as against one of 10.6 percent in the book and job average. In comparison with the first year (1907) of the index series, the 1940 average of 39.5 hours per week for book and job work represents a decrease of 27 percent, while the 37.5 hour average for newspaper members represents a decline of 17.3 percent.

Trends in Individual Trades

HOURLY WAGE RATES

The average hourly wage rate of union members in each of the individual trades was somewhat higher in 1940 than in 1939. (See table 2.) The mailers, with an advance of 2.7 percent in their book and job average and a 3.1-percent rise in their newspaper average, had the greatest increase among the trades of each group.

No other book and job trade had as much as a 2-percent increase in its average rate. The hand compositors' average rose 1.7 percent and that of the machine tenders 1.0 percent. Each of the other book and job averages were less than 1 percent higher in 1940 than in 1939.

Each of the newspaper averages rose somewhat more during the year than did the corresponding book and job averages. In addition to the mailers, three newspaper trades had increases of over 2 percent and each of the others had increases of over 1 percent.

Compared with the base year (1929) photoengravers showed the greatest increase in average hourly rates, their 1940 indexes indicating an average rise of 19.1 percent in newspaper work and of 18.4 percent in book and job work. The least advance recorded for any occupation during the 11 years since 1929 was that of the book and job machine operators, whose wage-rate index rose 8.8 percent. All of the newspaper wage-rate indexes increased more than 10 percent since 1929. In the book and job group, five of the indexes, in addition to that of the photoengravers, were over 10 percent higher than in 1929, and those of the bookbinders, cylinder pressmen, and platen pressmen were nearly 10 percent higher.

MAXIMUM WEEKLY HOURS

The average full-time week in 1940 was unchanged from 1939 for eight of the book and job trades. No changes in hour scales of any of the local unions were reported for six of these trades. The other two had a few changes, but they were insufficient to affect the index numbers. The greatest change in average full-time hours over the year was that of the electrotypers whose index was 2.4 percent lower in 1940 than in 1939. The book and job mailers had a decline of a half of 1 percent in their average hours between 1939 and 1940, and the photoengravers had one of two-tenths of 1 percent.

Each of the trades had some reduction between 1939 and 1940 in average full-time hours on newspaper work, the greatest being that of the stereotypers whose index declined nine-tenths of 1 percent. The newspaper mailers' average full-time week declined seven-tenths of 1 percent during the year, but no other newspaper trade had a change in its index of as much as a half of 1 percent.

In relation to the base year (1929), the electrotypers' index for 1940 (81.7) reflected the greatest reduction in average allowed hours among the book and job trades. The least reduction in full-time hours since 1929 among the book and job trades has been that of the press assistants and feeders; whose 1940 index showed a decline of 8.5 percent during the 11-year period.

The typographic workers had the greatest reductions in average full-time hours since 1929 among the newspaper trades. Their 1940 index numbers recorded a 20.5-percent reduction in average hours for machine tenders, an 18.1-percent reduction for machine operators, and a 16.9-percent reduction for hand compositors. In the other newspaper occupations the declines in average full-time hours amounted to 14.7 percent for the stereotypers, 11.8 percent for the photoengravers, and 11.1 percent for the pressmen.

The indexes for each printing trade, except mailers, from 1907 to 1940 are shown in table 2. Separate indexes for day and night work in the newspaper trades are not shown, since the movement is very similar.

TABLE 2.—*Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Printing Trade*
BOOK AND JOB
[1929=100.0]

Year	Bindery women		Bookbinders		Compositors, hand		Machine operators		Machine tenders (machinists)	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907			33.5	119.4	35.9	108.8	38.0	107.8		
1908			37.0	108.7	36.0	108.8	39.4	107.8		
1909			37.5	108.1	36.0	108.8	40.9	107.8		
1910			37.9	107.7	37.6	108.8	42.3	107.8		
1911			38.6	107.4	38.6	108.8	42.8	107.8		
1912			38.8	107.4	39.4	108.7	43.8	107.5	43.9	108.6
1913			39.8	107.4	39.9	108.7	45.0	107.5	44.6	108.6
1914			40.4	107.4	40.9	108.7	45.5	107.5	44.7	108.6
1915	37.3	107.0	40.5	107.4	41.1	108.7	45.6	107.5	44.9	108.6
1916	37.9	107.0	40.6	107.4	42.0	108.7	45.7	107.7	45.0	108.8
1917	40.6	107.0	43.1	107.4	42.9	108.7	46.8	107.7	46.1	108.8
1918	45.3	107.0	48.4	107.4	47.3	108.7	50.5	107.7	50.6	108.8
1919	58.7	107.0	61.8	107.4	57.8	108.7	60.9	107.7	62.2	108.8
1920	81.1	107.0	81.2	107.4	76.1	108.7	77.6	107.7	77.9	108.8
1921	94.7	102.1	88.9	101.9	87.3	102.8	87.8	102.1	90.1	100.8
1922	91.7	100.8	85.3	100.9	88.8	100.7	87.9	100.6	89.0	100.4
1923	95.8	100.3	90.5	100.4	90.9	99.7	89.5	100.2	90.8	100.1
1924	97.2	100.3	94.5	100.1	94.9	100.0	93.3	99.8	94.8	100.0
1925	98.3	100.3	95.6	100.4	94.4	100.0	93.3	100.2	94.9	100.2
1926	96.4	100.5	97.3	100.3	96.3	100.0	94.4	100.0	98.2	100.0
1927	98.7	99.9	99.4	100.0	98.0	100.0	98.1	100.2	98.8	100.0
1928	99.2	99.8	98.9	100.7	99.5	100.0	98.4	100.0	99.2	100.0
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	100.7	99.9	101.2	99.9	102.2	100.0	102.7	100.0	101.8	100.0
1931	101.2	99.8	101.6	99.8	102.8	100.0	103.2	100.0	102.9	100.0
1932	98.7	99.9	97.9	99.7	102.5	99.7	103.3	99.9	103.5	100.0
1933	94.8	99.9	94.4	99.6	96.3	96.5	96.9	95.6	97.4	95.0
1934	99.6	93.5	97.9	93.1	97.3	94.1	97.0	92.9	100.4	91.5
1935	100.5	92.8	99.3	91.5	99.0	92.4	98.6	91.2	100.9	90.7
1936	102.4	92.4	100.6	91.5	102.0	91.7	102.0	90.4	104.0	90.2
1937	104.0	91.9	103.4	91.5	105.8	91.6	104.8	90.3	107.0	90.2
1938	109.0	91.5	107.2	91.2	109.4	91.4	107.7	90.1	110.3	90.1
1939	110.6	90.4	109.3	90.0	109.9	91.4	108.0	90.1	110.7	90.0
1940	111.1	90.4	109.9	90.0	111.8	91.4	108.8	90.1	111.9	90.0

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Printing Trade—Continued

BOOK AND JOB—Continued

Year	Electro- typers		Photo- engravers		Press assist- ants and feeders		Pressman, cylinder		Pressmen, platen	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	32.5	108.1			27.7	120.7	35.4	115.8	35.1	114.2
1908	32.6	107.7			30.7	109.6	37.2	110.2	36.2	110.3
1909	32.8	107.5			31.2	108.5	40.3	108.6	37.5	108.0
1910	34.1	104.7			31.8	108.3	40.6	108.4	38.1	107.8
1911	36.1	104.0			33.1	108.3	41.4	108.4	38.9	107.8
1912	36.6	104.0			33.6	108.3	42.1	108.4	39.4	107.8
1913	37.3	103.8			34.4	108.1	42.6	108.4	40.2	107.9
1914	39.0	103.6			35.3	108.1	43.6	108.4	40.8	107.9
1915	39.9	103.6			35.5	108.1	43.6	108.4	41.0	107.9
1916	41.0	103.5	38.9	108.9	36.0	108.1	44.2	108.4	41.8	107.9
1917	42.3	103.4	42.3	108.9	37.9	108.1	45.0	108.4	43.9	107.9
1918	44.4	103.4	44.9	108.6	44.3	108.1	49.9	108.4	48.4	107.9
1919	50.9	103.4	52.3	108.6	57.1	108.1	60.5	108.4	59.4	107.9
1920	72.9	103.3	72.2	100.2	78.4	108.0	78.6	108.4	80.5	107.8
1921	84.7	100.1	76.9	100.0	84.8	102.2	86.8	102.4	89.9	102.2
1922	86.4	98.7	77.6	100.0	82.1	101.1	84.8	101.2	87.9	101.6
1923	91.8	99.6	78.4	100.0	91.9	100.4	91.5	100.7	91.5	100.3
1924	95.2	99.3	83.9	100.0	91.1	100.6	94.2	100.9	94.3	100.6
1925	94.9	100.2	86.0	100.2	96.2	100.3	95.4	100.4	94.8	100.5
1926	95.8	100.2	91.5	100.0	97.3	100.2	97.3	100.2	99.3	99.7
1927	96.9	100.3	95.9	100.0	98.5	100.1	97.5	100.2	100.2	99.7
1928	97.7	100.2	98.6	100.0	99.1	100.0	98.3	100.0	98.5	99.9
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	102.9	98.8	100.2	99.8	101.2	100.0	101.8	100.0	101.7	100.0
1931	105.2	98.1	100.5	99.8	102.0	100.0	102.5	100.0	102.2	100.5
1932	104.8	98.2	103.5	94.9	97.6	87.9	99.8	91.4	100.0	98.2
1933	98.2	93.1	101.5	91.7	90.9	92.9	93.6	92.4	93.1	95.9
1934	105.1	90.1	103.1	90.5	94.4	89.8	96.3	89.2	95.7	92.0
1935	106.7	88.2	109.6	86.9	96.5	89.6	97.5	88.9	96.4	91.3
1936	107.1	86.5	112.3	85.7	99.7	91.9	101.5	90.7	100.4	91.3
1937	108.5	86.3	113.7	85.2	104.8	91.7	105.1	90.4	105.0	90.9
1938	113.4	84.5	116.6	84.4	110.2	91.5	108.2	90.1	108.2	90.6
1939	114.2	83.6	117.5	83.8	110.9	91.5	109.0	90.1	109.2	90.6
1940	114.4	81.7	118.4	83.7	111.7	91.5	109.7	90.1	109.8	90.6

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours in Each Printing Trade—Continued

NEWSPAPER

Year	Compositors, hand		Machine operators		Machine tenders (machinists)		Photo- engravers		Pressmen, web presses ¹		Stereo- typers	
	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours	Wage rate	Hours
1907	39.1	101.6	40.0	101.6					38.1	101.4	41.6	105.5
1908	41.2	101.5	41.8	101.6					40.4	99.6	43.9	103.9
1909	43.4	101.5	43.1	101.6					42.2	98.9	45.3	102.8
1910	45.2	101.5	44.4	101.6					43.6	98.6	46.4	101.6
1911	46.1	101.5	44.8	101.6					43.9	98.6	46.7	101.4
1912	47.1	101.2	45.6	101.3	49.6	100.6			44.5	98.4	47.4	101.2
1913	47.9	101.2	46.4	101.2	50.0	100.6			45.5	98.4	50.2	101.3
1914	48.4	100.9	46.9	100.9	50.3	100.5			45.8	98.4	50.7	101.1
1915	48.7	100.8	47.3	100.6	50.6	100.3			46.0	98.4	50.8	101.0
1916	48.9	100.7	47.5	100.5	50.7	100.2	42.7	106.9	46.3	98.4	51.3	101.0
1917	50.1	100.7	48.9	100.5	51.3	100.2	44.6	106.9	47.2	98.3	52.6	100.9
1918	52.3	100.8	50.6	100.7	53.8	100.3	48.3	105.7	50.9	98.3	54.8	100.9
1919	62.9	100.8	61.6	100.7	68.3	100.3	56.9	105.4	62.7	99.0	61.7	101.0
1920	76.4	101.1	76.3	100.8	84.3	100.4	65.6	104.3	77.5	98.6	75.3	100.5
1921	83.3	100.9	81.2	100.6	87.9	100.4	77.6	101.1	83.0	98.4	87.7	99.1
1922	85.2	102.1	83.4	102.1	88.7	101.0	81.3	101.8	78.7	103.5	86.4	101.0
1923	86.0	102.1	84.3	102.0	88.9	101.0	81.0	100.9	79.8	103.0	88.1	100.9
1924	90.6	101.1	89.4	100.6	94.0	100.4	84.4	100.9	88.7	99.8	90.7	100.8
1925	91.3	101.0	91.1	100.6	91.4	100.9	87.8	100.2	92.7	99.2	93.1	100.4
1926	93.4	101.2	93.4	100.3	90.5	100.7	94.4	99.8	92.7	100.3	94.3	100.4
1927	96.5	100.6	95.4	100.2	95.7	100.1	95.7	100.2	97.5	100.1	95.5	100.2
1928	98.3	100.4	98.9	99.9	97.9	100.3	99.5	100.0	99.6	99.7	95.5	100.7
1929	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1930	100.9	99.7	100.8	99.8	100.8	99.8	101.6	99.9	101.7	99.8	100.8	100.0
1931	101.0	99.7	100.9	99.8	101.0	99.8	102.6	99.5	102.3	99.8	101.2	100.1
1932	100.0	97.6	100.2	95.9	100.4	92.9	103.8	99.4	103.6	97.8	100.2	99.3
1933	93.4	96.5	93.7	95.2	93.3	92.1	96.0	99.6	97.0	98.7	94.6	98.1
1934	94.8	86.7	94.9	85.2	94.5	82.6	100.5	95.5	97.2	93.9	96.0	94.9
1935	100.9	85.6	101.2	84.3	100.9	81.4	105.3	92.4	102.5	91.8	100.5	92.7
1936	102.7	84.0	102.9	82.7	102.8	79.9	107.9	92.1	103.1	91.4	102.0	92.3
1937	107.1	83.5	107.3	82.2	107.2	79.7	109.9	91.1	106.5	90.3	105.2	90.6
1938	109.3	83.5	109.7	82.1	109.8	79.6	115.5	88.6	109.3	89.7	108.8	88.8
1939	110.1	83.4	110.5	82.1	110.3	79.6	117.8	88.4	111.7	89.1	109.9	86.1
1940	112.4	83.1	112.6	81.9	112.4	79.5	119.1	88.2	114.4	88.9	113.0	85.3

¹ Includes pressmen in charge.

Since data for mailers were not collected in 1929, it is impossible to present index numbers for this craft comparable to those for the other trades. The changes from the previous year, as shown in comparable quotations for each year in which data have been collected for this trade, are given in table 3.

TABLE 3.—Percent of Change in Union Hourly Wage Rates and Weekly Hours of Mailers, 1937 to 1940

Item	Percent of change from previous year		
	1938	1939	1940
Mailers, book and job:			
Hourly wage rates	+5.9	+1.7	+2.7
Weekly hours	0	0	-5
Mailers, newspapers:			
Hourly wage rates	+2.7	+8	+3.1
Weekly hours	0	+1	-7

*Changes Between 1939 and 1940*²

HOURLY WAGE RATES

Increased hourly wage rates for 1940 were reported in 733, or 34 percent, of the quotations which furnished comparable data for both 1939 and 1940. Nearly two-thirds of the quotations, however, indicated that the 1939 wage scales were still in effect on June 1, 1940. Only 10 quotations, or about half of 1 percent, showed that decreases had occurred during the year. (See table 4.)

Of the total union membership covered by the comparable quotations, 35.9 percent had increases during the year, 64.1 percent had no changes, and less than one-tenth of 1 percent had reductions in hourly wage rates.

Reports of increases in wage rates were much more numerous, both proportionately and by actual count, among the newspaper trades than among the book and job trades. In the latter group about one-fourth of the quotations showed rate increases, compared with about 43 percent of the newspaper quotations. Similarly, the proportion of members benefited by rate increases was much greater in the newspaper trades, 55.7 percent, compared with 24.9 percent of the book and job membership. In neither group did the decreases apply to over a tenth of 1 percent of the members.

Among the book and job trades, the mailers, with 10 increases in 28 quotations, reported the largest proportionate membership affected by wage-rate increases (68.3 percent). Nearly a third of the quotations for hand compositors showed higher rates for 1940 than for 1939, and over 46 percent of their membership were benefited. Between 20 and 30 percent of the machine operators, machine tenders, photoengravers, and cylinder pressmen had their wage scales increased during the year. Only the electrotypers among the book and job trades had increases for less than 10 percent of their members.

In the newspaper trades the number of increases for day and night workers were proportionately equal. However, the proportion of night workers benefited was slightly the larger, 59.7 percent compared with 51.7 percent.

² Certain anomalies enter into a comparison of average rates between 2 years when such averages reflect not only the actual rates provided for in the agreements but the number of union members for those years in each local union covered by the reported rates. By and large, it would be expected that a general increase in actual rates would be accompanied by a corresponding increase in the average rate paid to union members, but if union membership increases most (or decreases least) in the lower-paid crafts or in areas with less-than-average rates, the average of the rates paid to all union members may not increase correspondingly or may even show a decrease. Conversely, the average rate may increase in spite of a downward swing in actual rates if union membership declines sufficiently in the lower-paid crafts or in areas where lower-than-average rates are paid.

Because the averages do not accurately reflect changes from year to year, no table comparing 1938 and 1939 averages is included in this report. For the trend of actual union rates, the tables of indexes (tables 1 and 2) should be consulted, since these are so computed as to eliminate the effect of fluctuating memberships at various rates. The current averages, on the other hand, best serve for comparison of the general level of wage rates between trades, or between cities and regions at the time the survey was made.

Among the separate newspaper trades, wage-rate increases were relatively most numerous for the mailers and pressmen in charge, as over half of these quotations, for both day and night shifts, showed raises gained during the year. In each of the newspaper crafts, except the photoengravers, increased wage rates were reported for over half of the members to whom the night rates applied. Likewise, in each craft, except the photoengravers, the proportion of night workers benefited by wage-rate increases was somewhat greater than the proportion of day workers to whom increases accrued. As regards day rates, over half of the hand compositors, machine tenders, pressmen, pressmen in charge, and stereotypers had increases, while the machine operators and mailers reported advances for over 40 percent, and the photoengravers for 38 percent of their members.

All of the reductions in wage rates reported for the newspaper trades affected only a tenth of 1 percent of the total membership and in no case applied to as much as 1 percent of the members in any craft.

TABLE 4.—*Number of Changes in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940, Compared With June 1, 1939*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1939	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of union members affected		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All printing trades.....	2, 152	733	10	1, 409	35.9	(1)	64.1
Book and job.....	1, 103	275	2	826	24.9	(1)	75.1
Bindery women.....	70	12	—	58	15.6	—	84.4
Bookbinders.....	142	38	—	104	19.0	—	81.0
Compositors, hand.....	76	24	—	52	40.3	—	59.7
Electrotypers.....	55	9	—	46	6.5	—	93.5
Machine operators.....	91	28	—	63	21.3	—	78.7
Machine tenders (machinists).....	39	12	—	27	29.3	—	70.7
Mailers.....	28	10	—	18	68.3	—	31.7
Photoengravers.....	56	6	—	50	21.3	—	78.7
Press assistants and feeders.....	183	53	2	128	17.7	(1)	82.3
Pressmen, cylinder.....	249	56	—	193	22.9	—	77.1
Pressmen, platen.....	114	27	—	87	17.5	—	82.5
Newspaper.....	1, 049	458	8	583	55.7	0.1	44.2
Day work.....	546	239	3	304	51.7	.1	48.2
Night work.....	503	219	5	279	59.7	.1	40.2
Compositors, hand:							
Day work.....	81	35	—	46	54.3	—	45.7
Night work.....	70	30	—	40	64.1	—	35.9
Machine operators:							
Day work.....	88	35	—	53	47.3	—	52.7
Night work.....	78	31	—	47	58.2	—	41.8
Machine tenders (machinists):							
Day work.....	67	28	1	38	58.6	.5	40.9
Night work.....	62	25	1	36	60.7	.6	38.7
Mailers:							
Day work.....	56	30	—	26	44.0	—	56.0
Night work.....	55	30	—	25	51.5	—	48.5
Photoengravers:							
Day work.....	50	11	1	38	38.0	.3	61.7
Night work.....	50	12	1	37	24.0	.6	75.4
Pressmen (journeymen):							
Day work.....	75	36	—	39	56.7	—	43.3
Night work.....	69	31	2	36	67.4	.2	32.4
Pressmen in charge:							
Day work.....	58	31	—	27	63.3	—	36.7
Night work.....	54	28	1	25	73.9	.2	25.9
Stereotypers:							
Day work.....	71	33	1	37	56.3	.3	43.4
Night work.....	65	32	—	33	65.1	—	34.9

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Of the total wage-rate increases reported, 512 were advances of less than 5 percent over the 1939 rates; 163 were raises of 5 to 10 percent; 49 were increases of 10 to 15 percent; and 9 were increases of 15 percent or more. The largest percentage increase was in the rate for third assistant rotary pressmen in Rock Island, Ill.—an advance from 81.3 cents in 1939 to \$1.100 per hour in 1940. Other relatively large increases were reported in Detroit, where one of the bookbinders' quotations indicated a rise from 50 to 65 cents in the rate for varnish-machine helpers; in Dallas, where some of the book and job photo-engravers were advanced from \$1.023 to \$1.250; and in Washington, D. C., where some of the newspaper day-shift mailers had their rate raised from 75 to 90 cents per hour. None of the other increases reported amounted to as much as 20 percent of the 1939 rate.

These large increases, however, benefited only a small number of union members. Of the total membership receiving wage-rate increases during the year, over eight-tenths had their scales raised by less than 5 percent, and about one-sixth had raises amounting to between 5 and 10 percent. The raises amounting to 10 percent or more of the 1939 rates applied to only 3 percent of the members for whom raises were reported. Table 5 shows the distribution of the wage-rate increases according to the percentage of increase.

TABLE 5.—*Number of Increases in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, by Percent of Increase, June 1, 1940, Compared With June 1, 1939*

Trade	Number of quotations showing increases of—					Percent of total members affected by increases of—				
	Less than 5 per-cent	5 and under 10 per-cent	10 and under 15 per-cent	15 and under 20 per-cent	20 per-cent and over	Less than 5 per-cent	5 and under 10 per-cent	10 and under 15 per-cent	15 and under 20 per-cent	20 per-cent and over
All printing trades.....	512	163	49	4	5	29.0	5.9	0.8	0.1	0.1
Book and job.....	208	41	20	2	4	21.4	2.8	.6	(1)	.1
Bindery women.....	7	1	4			11.5	1.0	3.1		
Bookbinders.....	30	4	3		1	18.3	.6	.1		(1)
Compositors, hand.....	19	4	1			39.6	6.6	.1		
Electrotypers.....	8		1			6.3		.2		
Machine operators.....	23	4	1			19.7	1.5	.1		
Machine tenders (machinists).....	10	1	1			28.2	.9	.2		
Mailers.....	6	2	2			61.5	.9	5.9		
Photoengravers.....	4	1			1	19.7	1.3			.3
Press assistants and feeders.....	33	11	5	2	2	10.9	5.3	1.1	.2	.2
Pressmen, cylinder.....	47	9				21.0	1.9			
Pressmen, platen.....	21	4	2			14.9	2.1	.5		
Newspaper.....	304	122	29	2	1	42.7	11.6	1.2	.1	.1
Day work.....	151	68	18	1	1	37.5	12.7	1.3	(1)	.2
Night work.....	153	54	11	1		47.9	10.5	1.1	.2	
Compositors, hand:.....										
Day work.....	26	8	1			42.9	11.3	.1		
Night work.....	24	6				51.8	12.3			
Machine operators:.....										
Day work.....	27	7	1			40.0	7.2	.1		
Night work.....	25	6				53.5	4.7			

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

TABLE 5.—Number of Increases in Union Wage-Rate Quotations and Percent of Members Affected, by Percent of Increase, June 1, 1940, Compared With June 1, 1939—Continued

Trade	Number of quotations showing increases of—					Percent of total members affected by increases of—				
	Less than 5 per-cent	5 and under 10 per-cent	10 and under 15 per-cent	15 and under 20 per-cent	20 per-cent and over	Less than 5 per-cent	5 and under 10 per-cent	10 and under 15 per-cent	15 and under 20 per-cent	20 per-cent and over
Newspaper—Continued.										
Machine tenders (machinists):										
Day work	22	5		1		51.4	7.0		0.2	
Night work	21	4				51.8	8.9			
Mailers:										
Day work	7	13	9		1	8.6	22.6	10.6		2.2
Night work	12	12	5	1		24.8	17.7	7.3	1.7	
Photoengravers:										
Day work	9	2				34.8	3.2			
Night work	7	5				20.0	4.0			
Pressmen (journeymen):										
Day work	20	13	3			40.8	15.2	.7		
Night work	19	10	2			61.7	5.1	.6		
Pressmen in charge:										
Day work	18	10	3			48.9	13.5	.9		
Night work	21	4	3			68.3	4.8	.8		
Stereotypers:										
Day work	22	10	1			34.2	21.6	.5		
Night work	24	7	1			33.7	31.0	.4		

MAXIMUM WEEKLY HOURS

Relatively few changes were made in the maximum weekly hour scales of union members in the printing trades between June 1, 1939, and June 1, 1940. Only 80 reductions and 10 increases in weekly hours were reported among the 2,152 comparable quotations. The decreases applied to 3.7 percent of the total membership and the increases to a tenth of 1 percent.

Changes in hour scales were considerably more numerous among the newspaper trades than among the book and job trades, there being 65 reductions in newspaper hours compared with 15 book and job reductions, and 9 newspaper increases compared with 1 book and job increase. Six of the book and job trades had no changes in weekly hours. Each of the newspaper trades, however, reported some changes.

Generally speaking, comparatively few union members were affected by the changes in hour scales. Only the book and job electrotypers and the newspaper mailers on night shifts had changes affecting as many as 10 percent of their members.

The distribution of the changes in weekly hours between 1939 and 1940 and the percentages of members affected are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Number of Change in Union Hour Quotations, and Percent of Members Affected, June 1, 1940, Compared With June 1, 1939*

Trade	Number of quotations comparable with 1939	Number of quotations showing—			Percent of union members affected		
		Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change
All printing trades.....	2,152	10	80	2,062	0.1	3.7	96.2
Book and job.....	1,103	1	15	1,087	(¹)	1.7	98.3
Bindery women.....	70			70			100.0
Bookbinders.....	142			142			100.0
Compositors, hand.....	76		1	75		.3	99.7
Electrotypers.....	55	1	8	46	.2	22.0	77.8
Machine operators.....	91		1	90		.2	99.8
Machine tenders (machinists).....	39			39			100.0
Mailers.....	28		2	26		5.4	94.6
Photoengravers.....	56		3	53		4.7	95.3
Press assistants and feeders.....	183			183			100.0
Pressmen, cylinder.....	249			249			100.0
Pressmen, platen.....	114			114			100.0
Newspaper.....	1,049	9	65	975	.2	7.3	92.5
Day work.....	546	3	38	505	.2	7.0	92.8
Night work.....	503	6	27	470	.2	7.5	92.3
Compositors, hand:							
Day work.....	81		4	77		8.2	91.8
Night work.....	70		4	66		9.8	90.2
Machine operators:							
Day work.....	88		4	84		6.1	93.9
Night work.....	78		4	74		6.3	93.7
Machine tenders (machinists):							
Day work.....	67	1	3	63	.5	5.3	94.2
Night work.....	62	1	2	59	.6	7.7	91.7
Mailers:							
Day work.....	56	1	3	52	.6	5.0	94.4
Night work.....	55		4	51		16.8	83.2
Photoengravers:							
Day work.....	50		6	44		5.2	94.8
Night work.....	50	1	3	46	.6	6.5	92.9
Pressmen (journeymen):							
Day work.....	75		5	70		9.0	91.0
Night work.....	69	2	2	65	.2	.2	99.6
Pressmen in charge:							
Day work.....	58		6	52		7.3	92.7
Night work.....	54	1	2	51	.2	.4	99.4
Stereotypers:							
Day work.....	71	1	7	63	1.6	6.2	92.2
Night work.....	65	1	6	58	1.7	6.8	91.5

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.*Average Union Wage Rates, 1940*

The average union rate per hour for all printing trades in the 72 cities studied was \$1.201 on June 1, 1940. The book and job average was \$1.131 and the newspaper average was \$1.331. (See table 7.)

The photoengravers' averages were higher than those of any other trade. For book and job work their average was \$1.569; for newspaper work it was \$1.637 on day shifts, and \$1.798 per hour on night shifts. The electrotypers had the second highest book and job average (\$1.429), with the machine tenders (\$1.289), and machine operators (\$1.266) next in line. Of all the book and job trades, only the bindery women (\$0.533) and the press assistants and feeders (\$0.947) had averages below \$1 per hour.

DISTRIBUTION OF UNION MEMBERS IN PRINTING TRADES ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES

JUNE 1, 1940

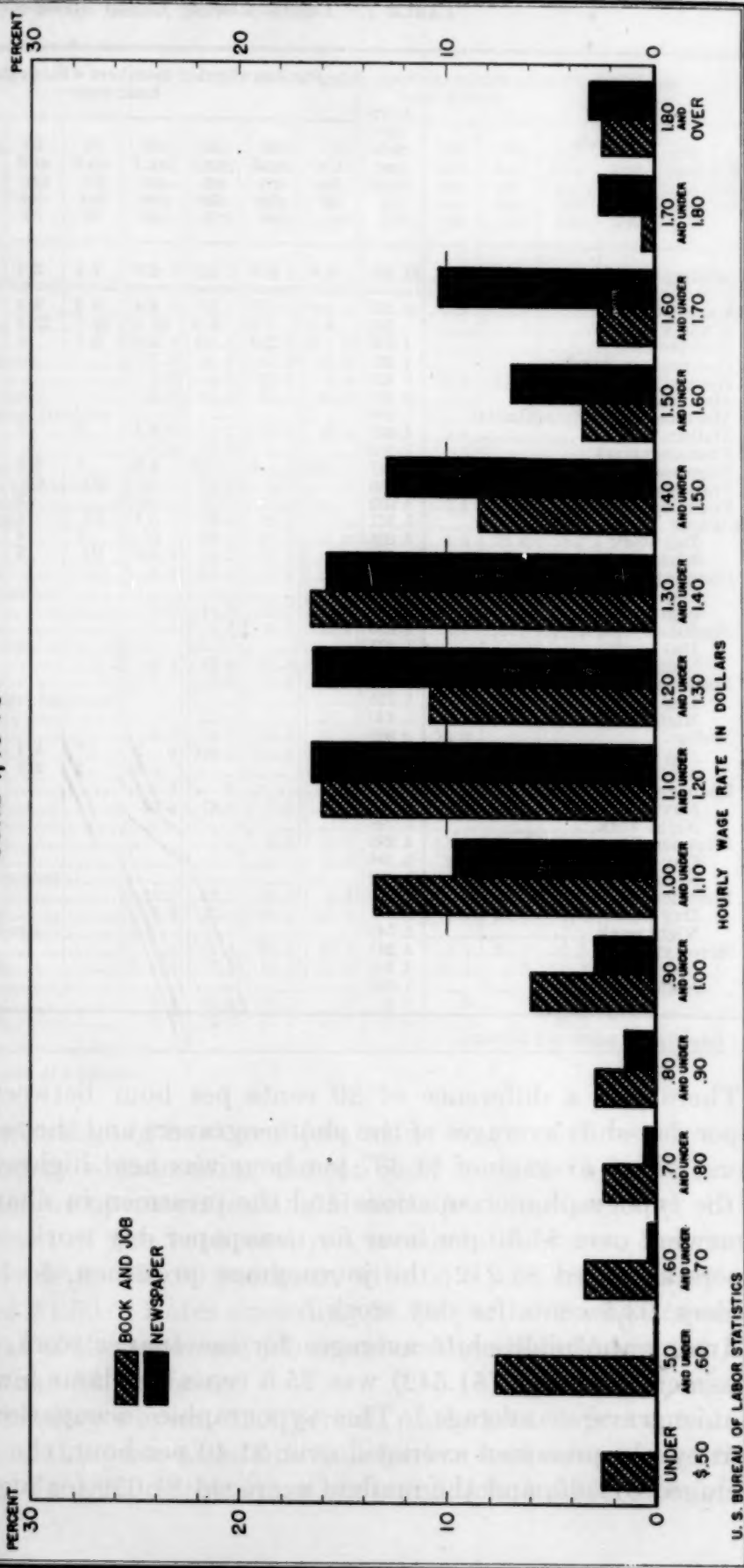


TABLE 7.—Distribution of Union Members in the Printing

Trade	Average rate per hour	Percent of union members whose rates (in cents) per hour were—								
		Under 40	40 and under 45	45 and under 50	50 and under 55	55 and under 60	60 and under 70	70 and under 80	80 and under 90	90 and under 100
All printing trades.....	\$1.201	0.4	0.3	1.0	2.9	2.2	2.4	1.9	2.4	4.8
Book and job.....	1.131	.6	.5	1.5	4.4	3.3	3.4	2.5	2.9	5.9
Bindery women.....	.533	4.6	1.8	13.3	33.3	22.3	22.9	1.8		
Bookbinders.....	1.026	.3	2.0	.1	1.4	6.1	.8	1.1	.8	9.2
Compositors, hand.....	1.231								.4	2.4
Electrotypers.....	1.429								.1	2.1
Machine operators.....	1.266							.3	.6	1.4
Machine tenders (machinists).....	1.289								.2	4.8
Mailers.....	1.076				1.4	.5	.7	1.6	10.5	7.1
Photoengravers.....	1.569									
Press assistants and feeders.....	.947	.2	.4	.2	3.9	.7	5.6	14.5	13.7	18.4
Pressmen, cylinder.....	1.250					(1)	(1)	.3	1.5	3.0
Pressmen, platen.....	1.032						.7	5.9	14.0	32.5
Newspaper.....	1.331			(1)	.1	(1)	.4	.6	1.4	2.9
Day work.....	1.268			(1)	(1)	.1	.4	1.0	1.4	4.8
Night work.....	1.394				.1	(1)	.3	.2	1.5	1.0
Compositors, hand.....	1.382									
Day work.....	1.320								.1	1.7
Night work.....	1.438									
Machine operators.....	1.390									
Day work.....	1.337								.2	1.0
Night work.....	1.439									
Machine tenders (machinists).....	1.372									
Day work.....	1.325									.2
Night work.....	1.430									
Mailers.....	.906									
Day work.....	.935			.1	.2	.7	4.4	9.5	10.0	37.6
Night work.....	1.038				1.0	.2	2.0	1.7	10.4	5.2
Photoengravers.....	1.709									
Day work.....	1.637									.5
Night work.....	1.798									1.1
Pressmen (journeymen).....	1.285									
Day work.....	1.194							.4	.5	1.3
Night work.....	1.402								.4	1.0
Pressmen in charge.....	1.426									
Day work.....	1.316								1.1	.4
Night work.....	1.542									.2
Stereotypers.....	1.283									
Day work.....	1.212								1.5	2.2
Night work.....	1.385									.8

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

There was a difference of 30 cents per hour between the newspaper day-shift averages of the photoengravers and the machine operators, whose average of \$1.337 per hour was next highest. All three of the typographic occupations and the pressmen in charge averaged somewhat over \$1.30 per hour for newspaper day work. The stereotypers averaged \$1.212; the journeymen pressmen, \$1.194; and the mailers, 93.5 cents for day work.

Among the night-shift averages for newspaper work, that of the pressmen in charge (\$1.542) was 25.6 cents per hour lower than the photoengravers' average. The typographic occupations and the journeyman pressmen averaged over \$1.40 per hour, the stereotypers averaged \$1.385, and the mailers averaged \$1.038 for night work.

Trades, by Hourly Wage Rates, June 1, 1940

Trade	Percent of union members whose rates (in cents) per hour were—										
	100 and under 110	110 and under 120	120 and under 130	130 and under 140	140 and under 150	150 and under 160	160 and under 170	170 and under 180	180 and under 190	190 and under 200	200 and over
All printing trades.....	12.2	16.2	12.8	16.1	10.1	4.7	5.4	1.3	2.3	0.1	0.5
Book and job.....	13.6	16.1	10.8	16.6	8.5	3.5	2.7	.6	2.6	—	(1)
Bindery women.....	30.4	36.5	10.2	1.0	.1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bookbinders.....	16.5	20.5	15.2	24.3	20.7	—	—	—	—	—	—
Compositors, hand.....	1.9	9.3	22.3	6.4	3.3	8.8	45.8	—	—	—	—
Electrotypers.....	11.1	14.4	17.1	49.2	5.6	—	—	—	—	—	.3
Machine operators.....	9.0	14.1	11.3	28.4	30.1	2.1	—	—	—	—	—
Machine tenders (machinists).....	18.0	55.5	4.7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mailers.....	—	—	4.5	13.1	20.5	27.4	.8	5.7	28.0	—	—
Photoengravers.....	18.5	16.9	6.7	.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Press assistants and feeders.....	18.3	16.5	11.0	31.7	11.9	3.1	2.6	.1	—	—	—
Pressmen, cylinder.....	9.1	13.0	22.2	2.6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pressmen, platen.....	9.7	16.5	16.5	15.8	12.9	6.9	10.4	2.7	1.6	.3	1.3
Newspaper.....	12.8	18.5	21.8	12.6	13.2	8.0	1.2	1.3	1.8	.5	.6
Day work.....	6.5	14.4	11.1	18.9	12.6	5.8	20.0	4.1	1.5	(1)	2.0
Night work.....	7.0	14.3	23.7	21.5	17.0	13.5	.1	—	—	.6	.5
Compositors, hand.....	2.4	8.7	8.2	23.7	19.8	9.1	27.8	—	—	—	.3
Night work.....	8.4	12.9	21.5	22.8	15.9	13.2	.5	—	—	1.5	2.1
Machine operators.....	1.7	8.8	8.7	24.6	21.4	7.5	26.1	—	.2	—	1.0
Night work.....	4.7	14.7	19.4	31.2	11.6	18.0	—	—	—	.2	—
Machine tenders (machinists).....	.9	10.5	11.4	23.9	19.9	7.1	26.3	—	—	—	—
Night work.....	36.9	.6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mailers.....	30.9	47.3	1.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Night work.....	—	.3	4.6	11.0	12.2	15.0	11.6	16.9	27.9	—	—
Photoengravers.....	—	—	—	2.5	5.5	8.4	20.2	19.0	15.9	.5	26.9
Night work.....	21.9	35.9	23.9	2.3	12.4	1.4	—	—	—	—	—
Pressmen (journeymen).....	3.3	10.0	26.2	25.6	.3	1.0	24.9	7.3	—	—	—
Night work.....	.6	17.4	38.8	10.6	16.5	2.2	10.9	1.5	—	—	—
Pressmen in charge.....	.6	3.2	10.7	17.9	15.5	21.4	4.0	.2	19.8	—	6.5
Night work.....	8.4	33.4	38.9	.7	13.0	.6	—	1.3	—	—	—
Stereotypers.....	6.9	17.2	22.3	14.7	10.9	1.7	—	25.1	—	—	.4
Night work.....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(1) Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

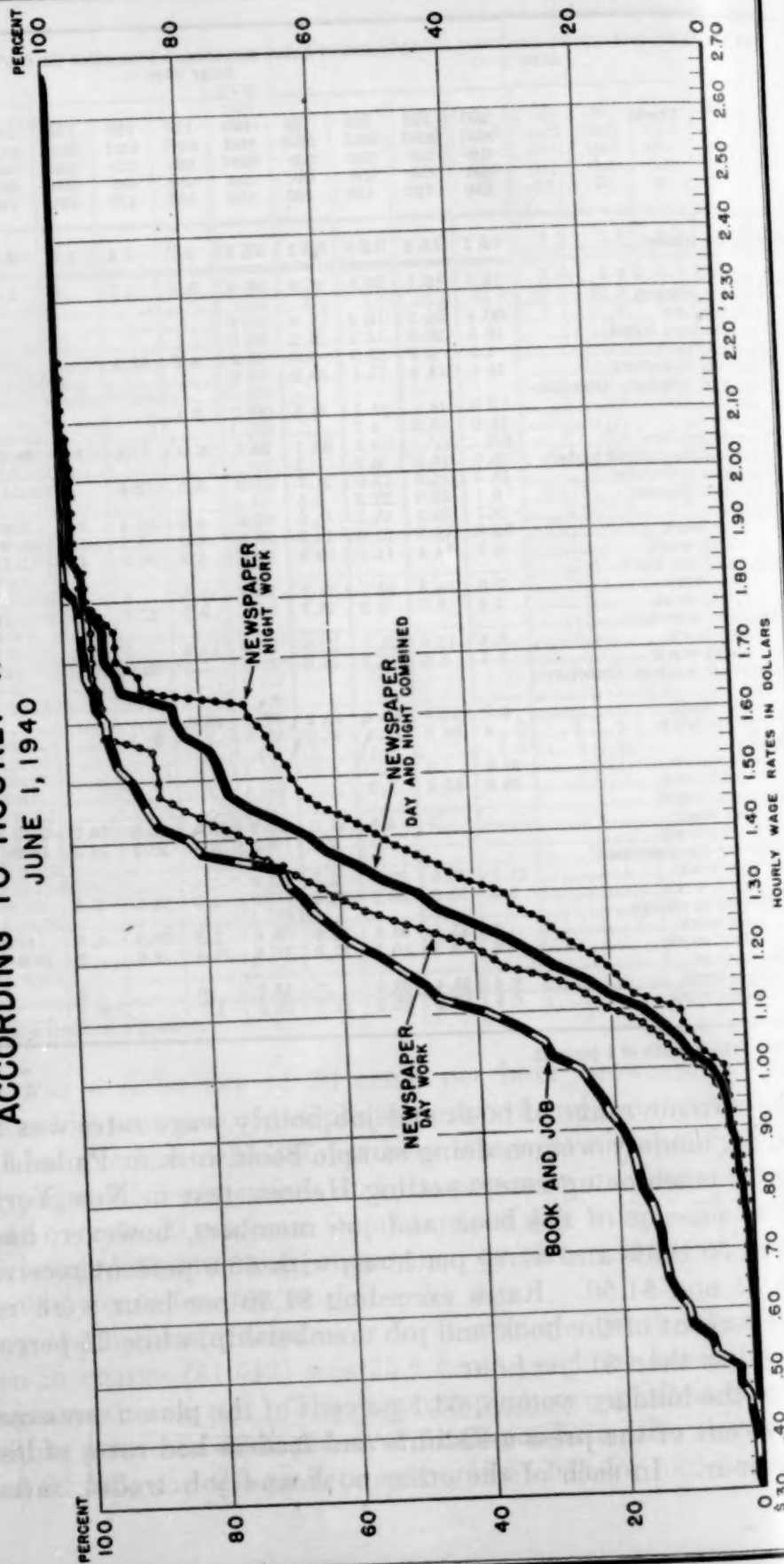
The extreme range of book and job hourly wage rates was from 30 cents, for bindery women doing sample book work in Philadelphia to \$2.00 for machine operators setting Hebrew text in New York City. Over 97 percent of the book and job members, however, had rates between 50 cents and \$1.90 per hour, with 65.6 percent receiving between \$1 and \$1.50. Rates exceeding \$1.50 per hour were reported for 9.4 percent of the book and job membership, while 25 percent had rates of less than \$1 per hour.

All of the bindery women, 53.1 percent of the platen pressmen, and 57.6 percent of the press assistants and feeders had rates of less than \$1 per hour. In each of the other book and job trades, rates of \$1

CUMULATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF UNION MEMBERS IN PRINTING TRADES ACCORDING TO HOURLY WAGE RATES

JUNE 1, 1940

CHART 3.



or more per hour were in effect for over half of the membership. The photoengravers reported the majority of their members as receiving at least \$1.60 per hour and none receiving less than \$1.20 per hour. The electrotypers also reported rates of \$1.50 and higher for over half their members, but the range of their rates at the other extreme included a small group having scales of below 90 cents per hour. The machine tenders and the cylinder pressmen were the only other occupational groups reporting significant proportions of their memberships as having rates as high as \$1.50 per hour.

Rates for newspaper workers ranged from 45 cents per hour for first-year mailers on day shifts in one of the Washington (D. C.) unions, to \$2.667 for hand and machine compositors setting Hebrew text on night shifts in New York City. Rates of less than \$1, however, applied to only 7.7 percent of the day workers and 3.1 percent of the night workers, while only 2.9 percent of the day workers and 3.5 percent of the night workers had rates as high as \$1.80 per hour.

More than half the newspaper photoengravers on day shifts had rates of \$1.60 or more per hour, and a majority of those on night shifts had rates of at least \$1.70 per hour. Only two day rates of less than \$1.20 and only one night rate of under \$1.30 per hour were reported for this trade.

Although there were a few quotations of less than \$1 and some of over \$1.80, the great majority of the typographic membership had day rates between \$1 and \$1.60 per hour; night rates were generally between \$1.10 and \$1.70 per hour. Day rates for journeyman pressmen were closely grouped, over 80 percent of the members having rates between \$1 and \$1.30 per hour and 12.4 percent, from \$1.40 to \$1.50 per hour. Over 61 percent of the pressmen on night shifts had rates between \$1.10 and \$1.40 and nearly a fourth, \$1.60 to \$1.70 per hour. The distribution of the stereotypers' rates was very similar to that of the pressmen in that over 80 percent of the day-working members had rates between \$1 and \$1.30 and 13 percent, from \$1.40 to \$1.50 per hour; and on the night shift 65.1 percent of the stereotypers had rates between \$1.10 and \$1.50 and 25.1 percent, between \$1.70 and \$1.80. The stereotypers, however, reported a few rates that were higher than any of the pressmen rates, and the pressmen had a few rates that were lower than any of those reported for stereotypers.

Only a few of the pressmen in charge on newspaper work were receiving less than \$1.10 per hour for day work or less than \$1.20 for night work. Over 83 percent of their members on day shifts had rates ranging from \$1.10 to \$1.50, and nearly 11 percent more had rates

between \$1.60 and \$1.70 per hour. On night work 65.5 percent of the pressmen in charge were receiving between \$1.20 and \$1.60 and 19.8 percent between \$1.80 and \$1.90 per hour. Some of the pressmen in charge in New York City had night rates exceeding \$2.00 per hour.

Only one trade (mailers) had rates of less than \$1 per hour for any great proportion of their newspaper workers. Although there were 62.5 percent of the mailers on the day shift receiving less than \$1 and none with rates over \$1.10 per hour, the range from 90 cents to \$1.10 per hour included 74.5 percent of all the day mailers. On the night shift 78.2 percent of the mailers were receiving between \$1.00 and \$1.20 per hour; a few had rates as high as \$1.25; but none had rates below 50 cents per hour.

NIGHT WAGE-RATE DIFFERENTIALS

The average wage-rate differential in favor of night workers on newspapers, as compared with day workers in identical occupations and cities, was 10.8 cents per hour. In a few instances the same rate was reported for both day and night work, but these quotations applied to only 2 percent of the total membership normally working on night shifts. Nearly half of the membership on night shifts had wage rates that were 8 or more cents per hour higher than the corresponding day rates, and over a third had differentials amounting to between 6 and 8 cents.

The photoengravers had the highest average differential (20.7 cents per hour) among the several trades. Over 61 percent of their night working members had rates that were more than 20 cents per hour higher than the corresponding day rates. For pressmen, pressmen in charge, and stereotypers, night rates averaged about 15.5 cents per hour higher than day rates. The average differentials for hand compositors, machine operators, machine tenders, and mailers were each slightly higher than 8 cents per hour.

All of the differentials in excess of 32 cents per hour were reported in New York, Chicago, and Newark. The highest was that of the hand and machine operators setting Hebrew text in New York, who had a night rate 66.7 cents per hour higher than the day rate. Similar work in Chicago had a night differential of 64.5 cents per hour. Other large differentials in New York were: 40 cents for pressmen in charge on color work, 36.5 cents for photoengravers on gravure work, 36.1 cents for pressmen on color work, and 35 cents for stereotypers. In Newark the stereotypers' differential was 39.5 cents per hour, and in Chicago the stereotypers on foreign language papers had a differential of 43 cents per hour.

The average differentials and the distribution of the night-working membership according to the amount of their differentials are shown in table 8.

TABLE 8.—*Differentials Between Union Day and Night Wage Rates in Newspaper Printing Trades, June 1, 1940*

Trade	Average difference per hour in wage rate ¹	Percent of night workers whose wage-rate differences (in cents) in comparison to day work, were—												
		0	Under 4	4 and under 6	6 and under 8	8 and under 10	10 and under 12	12 and under 14	14 and under 16	16 and under 20	20 and under 24	24 and under 28	28 and under 32	32 and over
All newspaper trades	\$0.108	2.0	4.3	9.2	34.6	8.4	7.7	9.9	8.5	3.3	6.6	1.0	0.8	3.7
Compositors, hand081	-----	-----	8.6	56.8	12.4	10.9	5.4	5.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	.2
Machine operators081	-----	-----	9.9	62.1	9.3	8.8	4.3	4.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	.8
Machine tenders (machinists)083	2.0	-----	10.0	40.1	10.5	29.1	2.6	5.7	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Mailers083	1.7	25.1	17.2	3.0	3.5	5.6	36.1	7.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Photoengravers207	.3	-----	3.0	3.6	.3	6.9	22.4	1.0	.7	31.4	2.7	15.5	12.2
Pressmen (journeymen)155	5.5	3.4	3.7	4.8	7.6	3.6	2.4	20.7	14.9	25.9	3.7	-----	3.8
Pressmen in charge157	6.0	4.1	4.4	3.7	9.1	1.5	10.0	19.3	13.9	21.2	2.9	-----	3.9
Stereotypers155	8.4	3.6	13.5	17.3	6.0	2.4	8.6	7.3	4.5	-----	2.2	-----	26.2

¹ Since some cities did not have both day and night workers, and are thus excluded from table 8, the average differentials shown in this table are not the same as the differences between the averages for day and night work shown in table 7.

OVERTIME RATES

Time and one-half was almost universally specified as the overtime rate in the printing-trades agreements. Only 6 of the 1,209 book and job quotations and 10 of the 1,077 newspaper quotations showed any other rate for overtime work. A few (17) newspaper quotations indicated that no overtime-rate provisions had been adopted.

In a number of the reports it was stated that the initial overtime rates applied for only a limited number of hours before or after the regular working time and that a higher rate applied thereafter. A number of the unions further restricted overtime work by requiring any member, who has worked overtime, to take equivalent time off as soon as a competent substitute is available to work in his place.

The distribution of the initial overtime rates provided in the printing-trades agreements and the proportions of the memberships to which they applied are shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—Overtime Rates Provided in Printing-Trades Union Agreements, June 1, 1940

Trade	Number of quotations showing initial overtime rates of—				Percent of union members having initial overtime rates of—			
	Time and one-half	Double time	Other penalty scale	No penalty rate specified	Time and one-half	Double time	Other penalty scale	No penalty rate specified
All printing trades.....	2,253	6	10	17	98.9	0.2	0.8	0.1
Book and job.....	1,203	6			99.6	.4		
Bindery women.....	76				100.0			
Bookbinders.....	162				100.0			
Compositors, hand.....	78				100.0			
Electrotypers.....	57				100.0			
Machine operators.....	96				100.0			
Machine tenders (machinists).....	42				100.0			
Mailers.....	32				100.0			
Photoengravers.....	58				100.0			
Press assistants and feeders.....	196	6			97.1	2.9		
Pressmen, cylinder.....	285				100.0			
Pressmen, platen.....	121				100.0			
Newspaper.....	1,050		10	17	97.5		2.2	.3
Day work.....	544		7	10	96.5		3.0	.5
Night work.....	506		3	7	98.5		1.4	.1
Compositors, hand:								
Day work.....	78		1	2	99.8		(1)	.2
Night work.....	68			2	99.8			.2
Machine operators:								
Day work.....	86		1	2	99.2		.1	.7
Night work.....	77			2	99.7			.3
Machine tenders (machinists):								
Day work.....	68			2	99.5			.5
Night work.....	62			1	99.7			.3
Mailers:								
Day work.....	61				100.0			
Night work.....	59				100.0			
Photoengravers:								
Day work.....	52				100.0			
Night work.....	52				100.0			
Pressmen (journeymen):								
Day work.....	70		3	2	88.8		10.4	.8
Night work.....	67		2	1	94.0		5.9	.1
Pressmen in charge:								
Day work.....	58		1	2	96.5		.7	2.8
Night work.....	55			1	99.8			.2
Stereotypers:								
Day work.....	71		1		93.2		6.8	
Night work.....	66		1		93.8		6.2	

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

AVERAGE WAGE RATES, BY SIZE OF CITY

The averages of the wage rates for all printing trades within the several population groups varied directly with the size of the cities. The cities having the largest populations (group I: over 1,000,000) had an average rate over 15 cents per hour higher than those having populations between 500,000 and 1,000,000 (group II). The group II cities, in turn, had an average 5.7 cents per hour higher than that for group III cities (250,000 to 500,000 population). The group III average exceeded the group IV (100,000 to 250,000) average by 3 cents per hour, and the group IV average exceeded the group V (40,000 to 100,000) average by over 5 cents per hour. The same general relationship between the average hourly wage rates and the city sizes prevailed not only for all printing trades combined, but also for the

averages of the combined book and job trades and of all newspaper trades. (See table 10.)

In the northern and Pacific region the direct variation in accordance with population held for the averages of all trades and also for the averages of both the book and job and newspaper groups.

In the South and Southwest the averages for the newspaper trades varied directly with the city sizes, but the averages for the book and job trades and for all trades combined did not. In the book and job group, size V cities had a somewhat higher average than size IV cities, which in turn slightly exceeded that of the size III cities. This was largely due to the fact that the lowest paid trades in the book and job group—the bindery women, bookbinders, mailers, and press assistants and feeders—were less widely organized in the small cities than in the large cities. In size III cities in the South and Southwest these trades included 35 percent of the total book and job membership; in size IV cities they included 31 percent; and in size V cities they included only 21 percent. The influence of the higher rated trades upon the averages thus became progressively greater as the populations of the cities included in the various averages became less. This influence carried over into the averages for all printing trades combined, with the result that the average for size IV cities of the South and Southwest was over a cent higher than that of the size III cities.

In general the averages for the separate trades varied directly with the population groups. Including cities in all regions, the averages of six book and job trades varied directly throughout the city-size classifications. Five book and job trades maintained direct variation in their averages for northern and Pacific cities, and two had direct variation throughout their city-size averages for southern and southwestern cities.

In the northern and Pacific group of cities the most frequent reversal in the variation of the book and job trade averages, according to city size, consisted of higher averages for size III cities than for size II cities. To a considerable extent this was due to the influence of large memberships, and rates relatively low for cities of their size, in Boston, Milwaukee, St. Louis, and Washington, D. C. Each of these cities had book and job rates averaging lower than the book and job average for all size III cities, and their combined printing-trades membership amounted to 56 percent of the total membership reported for all size II cities in the northern and Pacific region.

In the southern and southwestern region the overlap of book and job wage rates as between city sizes was most apparent in respect to sizes III and IV, six trades having higher averages for size IV than for size III cities. This resulted mainly from the influence of the Okla-

homa City and Richmond quotations, which averaged higher than those for all size III cities and included over 44 percent of the membership reported in all of the size IV cities of the South and Southwest.

The averages for the newspaper trades varied with the city-size groups more consistently than those of the book and job trades. There was direct variation in the day-rate averages of all cities for six trades and in the night-rate averages of four trades. In the day-rate averages limited to northern and Pacific cities there was direct variation for four trades, and also in the night-rate averages of five trades. In the southern and southwestern cities the day-rate averages of six trades varied directly with the population groups as did the night-rate averages of five trades.

In the northern and Pacific region the exceptions to direct variation in the newspaper averages most frequently consisted of higher averages for size V than for size IV cities. In the southern and southwestern region there were three newspaper trade averages for size IV cities that were higher than those for size III cities, and two higher averages for size V than for size IV cities. In neither region, however, could these exceptions to direct variation in the averages be attributed to the influence of any one or two cities.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN WAGE RATES

There is no city in the South or Southwest with a population of over 500,000. Consequently, any comparison of average wage rates between the regions must be confined to population groups III, IV, and V. (See table 10.)

Within the city-size classifications the averages for all printing trades combined, as well as for both the book and job and the newspaper groups of trades, were consistently higher in the northern and Pacific region than in the South and Southwest.

The same relationship prevailed generally throughout the averages of the individual trades, the only exceptions occurring in the size IV city averages for the bookbinders and the newspaper photo-engravers on day shifts, and in the size V city averages of the hand compositors, machine tenders, and platen pressmen in the book and job group. The comparatively high rates and large memberships reported in Phoenix were mainly responsible for the higher averages for southern and southwestern cities in the size V group. The higher average for bookbinders in southern and southwestern size IV cities was mainly due to the reporting of a considerable number of members in subsidiary occupations of the trade—at rates of 50 cents or less per hour—in Springfield, while practically all members in each of the other cities of this size group were reported at a single rate, in most cases

CHART 4.

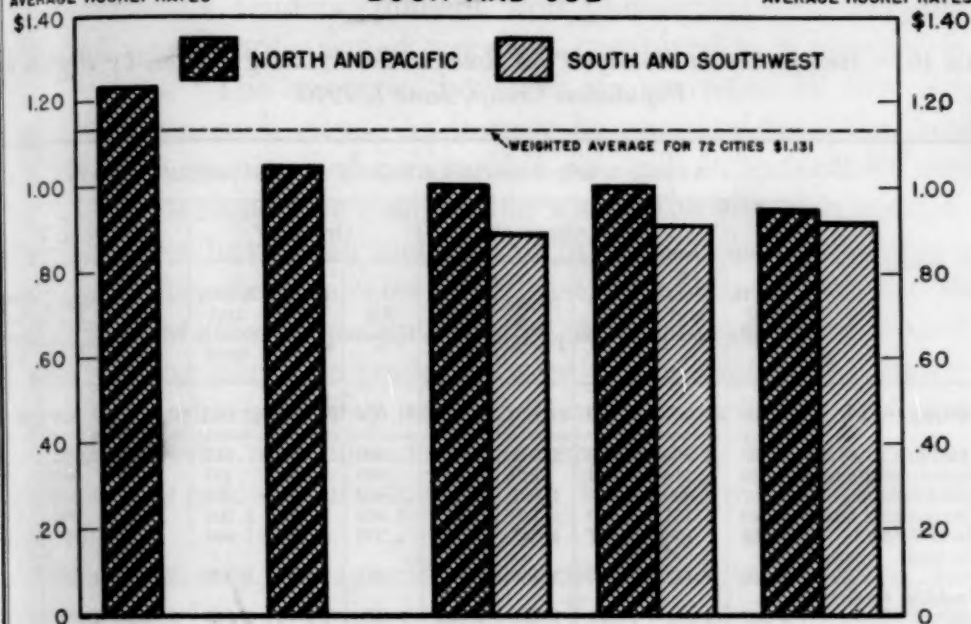
AVERAGE UNION WAGE RATES IN PRINTING TRADES ACCORDING TO SIZE OF CITY AND REGION

JUNE 1, 1940

AVERAGE HOURLY RATES

BOOK AND JOB

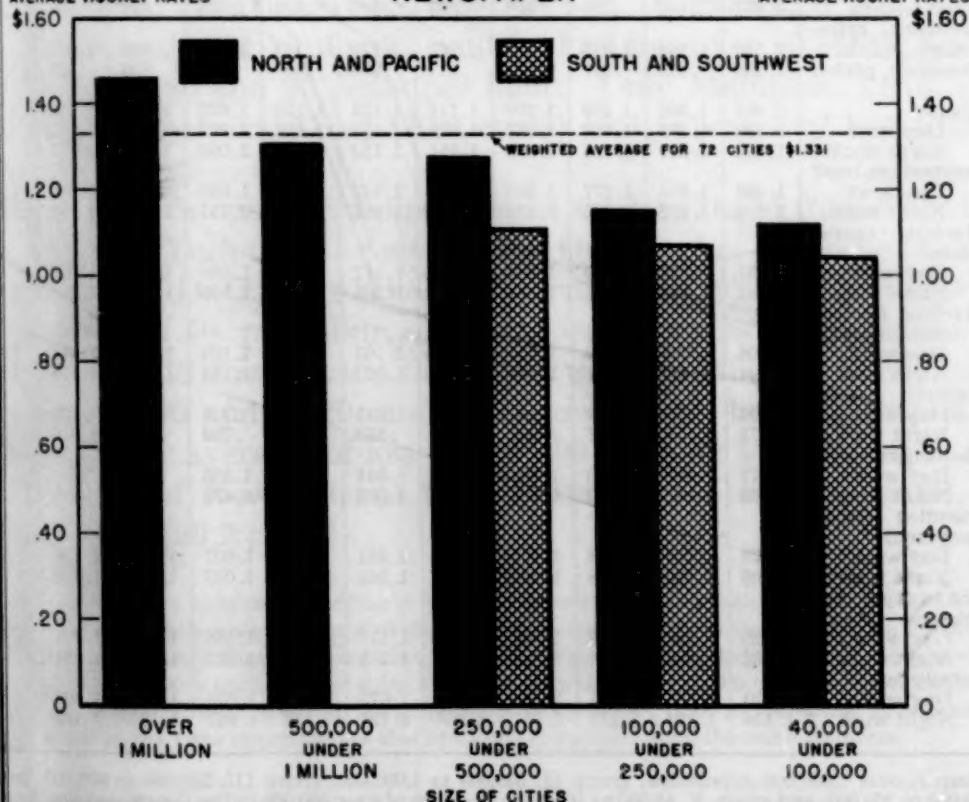
AVERAGE HOURLY RATES



AVERAGE HOURLY RATES

NEWSPAPER

AVERAGE HOURLY RATES



U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

higher than \$0.900 per hour. The influence resulting in a lower average for day newspaper photoengravers in the northern and Pacific size IV cities than in the southern and southwestern cities can be ascribed to no particular cities, although the lowest rates for this occupation in any size IV cities occurred in Rock Island (\$1.184 per hour) and in Wichita (\$1.20), both cities in the northern and Pacific region.

TABLE 10.—Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Printing Trades, by Region and Population Group, June 1, 1940

Trade	Average hourly wage rates in cities of specified population group ¹										
	Group I: North and Pacific	Group II: North and Pacific	Group III			Group IV			Group V		
			All regions	North and Pacific	South and South- west	All regions	North and Pacific	South and South- west	All regions	North and Pacific	South and South- west
All printing trades....	\$1.300	\$1.147	\$1.000	\$1.110	\$1.002	\$1.060	\$1.073	\$1.013	\$1.009	\$1.024	\$0.986
Book and job.....	1.233	1.050	.993	1.011	.896	.990	1.005	.915	.940	.952	.919
Bindery women.....	.550	.546	.504	.513	.444	.500	.516	.457	.480	.492	.450
Bookbinders.....	1.007	1.090	1.062	1.091	.921	.862	.846	.939	1.010	1.055	.900
Compositors, hand.....	1.346	1.151	1.129	1.146	1.013	1.069	1.084	1.001	.994	.986	1.012
Electrotypers.....	1.588	1.198	1.237	1.247	1.132	1.200	1.215	1.041	(²)	(²)	-----
Machine opera- tors.....	1.356	1.182	1.142	1.168	1.067	1.067	1.076	1.039	1.010	1.033	.977
Machine tenders (machinists).....	1.387	1.081	1.212	1.226	1.013	1.094	1.103	1.047	1.096	1.089	1.109
Mailers.....	1.124	1.064	1.044	1.059	.950	.794	.791	(²)	(²)	(²)	-----
Photoengravers.....	1.648	1.460	1.450	1.472	1.311	1.395	1.404	1.366	1.315	(²)	1.259
Press assistants and feeders.....	1.051	.862	.770	.801	.598	.803	.824	.615	.634	.708	.532
Pressmen, cylin- der.....	1.356	1.169	1.118	1.155	.980	1.128	1.143	1.003	.993	1.019	.943
Pressmen, platen.....	1.206	.993	.917	.931	.815	.904	.927	.784	.836	.833	.839
Newspaper.....	1.461	1.306	1.239	1.276	1.114	1.133	1.154	1.075	1.087	1.122	1.046
Day work.....	1.408	1.251	1.203	1.237	1.078	1.111	1.129	1.053	1.047	1.075	1.007
Night work.....	1.496	1.369	1.295	1.339	1.161	1.162	1.193	1.098	1.124	1.175	1.075
Compositors, hand: Day work.....	1.496	1.350	1.277	1.310	1.164	1.137	1.151	1.092	1.061	1.096	1.022
Night work.....	1.574	1.452	1.333	1.373	1.203	1.195	1.212	1.153	1.130	1.180	1.081
Machine opera- tors: Day work.....	1.531	1.358	1.290	1.307	1.173	1.147	1.162	1.088	1.063	1.099	1.025
Night work.....	1.581	1.441	1.354	1.379	1.230	1.205	1.228	1.150	1.136	1.180	1.103
Machine tenders (machinists): Day work.....	1.508	1.333	1.259	1.291	1.180	1.163	1.177	1.103	1.090	1.117	1.050
Night work.....	1.594	1.433	1.317	1.364	1.222	1.207	1.243	1.155	1.142	1.179	1.104
Mailers: Day work.....	.993	.955	.899	.959	.744	.813	.821	.796	.710	.733	(²)
Night work.....	1.071	1.017	.997	1.051	.874	.853	.890	.789	.859	1.036	.726
Photoengravers: Day work.....	1.777	1.499	1.396	1.464	1.261	1.344	1.341	1.356	(²)	(²)	-----
Night work.....	1.963	1.662	1.532	1.628	1.298	1.503	1.510	1.476	(²)	(²)	-----
Pressmen (Jour- neymen): Day work.....	1.278	1.157	1.138	1.160	1.056	1.051	1.066	1.007	1.076	1.126	.944
Night work.....	1.509	1.290	1.208	1.235	1.146	1.101	1.140	1.037	1.121	1.164	1.043
Pressmen in charge: Day work.....	1.420	1.260	1.239	1.263	1.152	1.171	1.176	1.138	1.183	1.234	(²)
Night work.....	1.652	1.380	1.295	1.321	1.249	1.216	1.222	1.211	1.234	1.234	-----
Stereotypers: Day work.....	1.310	1.224	1.155	1.189	1.065	1.075	1.095	1.016	1.073	1.103	1.002
Night work.....	1.556	1.339	1.215	1.277	1.108	1.124	1.173	1.047	1.131	1.163	1.078

¹ Group I, over 1,000,000 population; group II, 500,000 to 1,000,000; group III, 250,000 to 500,000; group IV, 100,000 to 250,000; and group V, 40,000 to 100,000. No cities of over 500,000 in the South and Southwest.

² Insufficient quotations to compute an average for this classification.

AVERAGE RATES IN EACH CITY

Averages of the combined book and job rates and of the combined newspaper rates in each city, grouped according to population, are presented in table 11.³

Not all the trades had effective union scales in all the cities. This was especially true among the bindery women, bookbinders, electrotypers, machine tenders, mailers, and photoengravers—occupations which either did not exist or were not organized in a number of the smaller cities. The averages, however, do represent all the effective union scales in each city. As it may be assumed that the types of printing done in cities of comparable size will in general be similar, these averages should be comparable within the city-size groups.

No averages have been included in table 11 unless they were computed from the effective rates of at least two distinct printing trades. In this respect, the three typographic classifications were considered as constituting only one trade, as were the newspaper pressmen and pressmen in charge. Day and night newspaper rates for identical occupations were also considered as representing but one trade. In consequence, a few cities included in the survey do not appear in table 11.

The highest city averages for the book and job trades were those of Chicago (\$1.273 per hour) and New York (\$1.267). Generally, the book and job averages ranged between 80 cents and \$1.20 per hour. For 12 cities, the averages were between \$1.10 and \$1.20; for 18, over \$1.00 but under \$1.10; for 22, under \$1.00 but over 90 cents; and for 13, between 80 and 90 cents per hour. Only Memphis, Tenn. (76.7 cents) and Jackson, Miss. (79.2 cents) had averages of less than 80 cents per hour.

The city averages for the newspaper trades ranged from \$1.611 per hour in New York to 91.1 cents in New Orleans, La. Chicago (\$1.401), Washington, D. C. (\$1.417), and Newark (\$1.416) each had averages exceeding \$1.40 per hour. Newspaper averages in 7 cities were between \$1.30 and \$1.40; in 21, between \$1.20 and \$1.30; in 18, between \$1.10 and \$1.20; and in 14, over \$1.00 but less than \$1.10. The only city averages of less than \$1.00 per hour for newspaper work were those of New Orleans (91.1 cents), Wichita (95.5 cents), and Little Rock (99.2 cents).

³ The averages are weighted according to the number of members in each local union covered by the reported rates. While a comparison of average rates between cities where averages include the influences of the membership factor may be somewhat misleading where membership is unusually large or small in comparison to the same trade in other cities, a weighted average of this kind is obviously more realistic than a simple average of specific rates. In the latter case a wage rate in a trade including half a dozen members would be given the same importance as that of a trade including several thousand members.

TABLE 11.—Average Union Hourly Wage Rates in the Printing Trades, by Cities and Population Groups, June 1, 1940

City and population group	Average hourly rate	City and population group	Average hourly rate
<i>Book and job</i>		<i>Newspaper</i>	
Population group I (over 1,000,000):		Population group I (over 1,000,000):	
Chicago, Ill.	\$1.273	New York, N. Y.	\$1.611
New York, N. Y.	1.267	<i>Average for group I</i>	1.461
<i>Average for group I</i>	1.233	Chicago, Ill.	1.401
Detroit, Mich.	1.192	Detroit, Mich.	1.332
Philadelphia, Pa.	1.071	Los Angeles, Calif.	1.234
Los Angeles, Calif.	1.041	Philadelphia, Pa.	1.228
Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):		Population group II (500,000 to 1,000,000):	
San Francisco, Calif.	1.161	Washington, D. C.	1.417
Cleveland, Ohio	1.137	Cleveland, Ohio	1.390
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1.124	Boston, Mass.	1.336
Baltimore, Md.	1.083	Milwaukee, Wis.	1.320
Buffalo, N. Y.	1.073	<i>Average for group II</i>	1.306
<i>Average for group II</i>	1.050	San Francisco, Calif.	1.256
St. Louis, Mo.	1.007	Pittsburgh, Pa.	1.244
Milwaukee, Wis.	.996	Buffalo, N. Y.	1.238
Boston, Mass.	.989	St. Louis, Mo.	1.235
Washington, D. C.	.931	Baltimore, Md.	1.230
Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):		Population group III (250,000 to 500,000):	
Toledo, Ohio	1.180	Newark, N. J.	1.416
Seattle, Wash.	1.157	Providence, R. I.	1.370
Rochester, N. Y.	1.123	Cincinnati, Ohio	1.335
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.123	Toledo, Ohio	1.307
Indianapolis, Ind.	1.105	Columbus, Ohio	1.294
Dallas, Tex.	1.066	Indianapolis, Ind.	1.281
Newark, N. J.	1.046	Seattle, Wash.	1.281
Providence, R. I.	1.046	Minneapolis, Minn.	1.259
Columbus, Ohio	1.039	<i>Average for group III</i>	1.233
Portland, Oreg.	1.021	Portland, Oreg.	1.220
Kansas City, Mo.	1.004	St. Paul, Minn.	1.212
<i>Average for group III</i>	.993	Houston, Tex.	1.204
Houston, Tex.	.981	Denver, Colo.	1.191
Denver, Colo.	.972	Rochester, N. Y.	1.177
Atlanta, Ga.	.889	Kansas City, Mo.	1.175
New Orleans, La.	.889	Louisville, Ky.	1.140
Louisville, Ky.	.864	Memphis, Tenn.	1.117
St. Paul, Minn.	.858	Atlanta, Ga.	1.101
Minneapolis, Minn.	.856	Dallas, Tex.	1.096
Birmingham, Ala.	.845	Birmingham, Ala.	1.022
Memphis, Tenn.	.767	New Orleans, La.	.911
Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):		Population group IV (100,000 to 250,000):	
Youngstown, Ohio	1.197	Scranton, Pa.	1.288
Rock Island (Ill.) district	1.168	Dayton, Ohio	1.268
Erie, Pa.	1.098	Youngstown, Ohio	1.267
Dayton, Ohio	1.073	Reading, Pa.	1.218
El Paso, Tex.	1.050	Erie, Pa.	1.216
Omaha, Nebr.	1.049	Des Moines, Iowa	1.189
South Bend, Ind.	1.025	Omaha, Nebr.	1.184
Peoria, Ill.	.998	Springfield, Mass.	1.179
Duluth, Minn.	.994	Rock Island (Ill.) district	1.172
Norfolk, Va.	.991	Worcester, Mass.	1.155
<i>Average for group IV</i>	.990	Duluth, Minn.	1.154
Reading, Pa.	.986	Jacksonville, Fla.	1.149
Oklahoma City, Okla.	.977	<i>Average for group IV</i>	1.133
New Haven, Conn.	.972	El Paso, Tex.	1.133
Richmond, Va.	.969	Peoria, Ill.	1.131
Grand Rapids, Mich.	.947	New Haven, Conn.	1.101
Des Moines, Iowa	.940	Salt Lake City, Utah	1.095
Scranton, Pa.	.940	Grand Rapids, Mich.	1.092
Springfield, Mass.	.933	Richmond, Va.	1.088
Spokane, Wash.	.932	Norfolk, Va.	1.086
Salt Lake City, Utah	.922	San Antonio, Tex.	1.080
Worcester, Mass.	.910	Spokane, Wash.	1.076
Wichita, Kans.	.887	South Bend, Ind.	1.062
Jacksonville, Fla.	.869	Oklahoma City, Okla.	1.057
Nashville, Tenn.	.845	Nashville, Tenn.	1.013
San Antonio, Tex.	.844	Wichita, Kans.	.955
Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):		Population group V (40,000 to 100,000):	
Madison, Wis.	1.199	Butte, Mont.	1.219
Phoenix, Ariz.	1.037	Charleston, W. Va.	1.203
Charleston, W. Va.	1.012	Madison, Wis.	1.154
Charlotte, N. C.	.970	Phoenix, Ariz.	1.154
<i>Average for group V</i>	.940	<i>Average for group V</i>	1.087
Butte, Mont.	.938	Portland, Maine	1.070
York, Pa.	.914	Manchester, N. H.	1.060
Portland, Maine	.826	Charlotte, N. C.	1.032
Manchester, N. H.	.825	Little Rock, Ark.	.992
Little Rock, Ark.	.810		
Jackson, Miss.	.792		

Union Hours, 1940

The average maximum workweek provided in the union agreements of all the printing trades was 38.8 hours on June 1, 1940. For book and job work the average of all trades was 39.5 and for newspaper work, 37.5 hours. Day work on newspapers averaged 38.1 hours and night work averaged 37 hours. (See table 12.)

The electrotypers' average of 35.9 hours per week was the lowest among the book and job trades. The weekly hours specified for photoengravers in book and job shops averaged 37.4 and those of the bookbinders, hand compositors, machine operators, machine tenders, and mailers each averaged a fraction under 40 hours per week. For the bindery women, press assistants and feeders, cylinder pressmen, and platen pressmen the average allowed hours were 40 per week.

In newspaper work the full-time weekly hours on day shifts averaged between 37 and 38 for hand compositors, machine operators, machine tenders, and photoengravers; between 38 and 39 for pressmen, pressmen in charge, and stereotypers; and over 39 for mailers only. The night-shift averages were slightly under 36 per week for the pressmen, pressmen in charge, and stereotypers, and between 37 and 38 hours per week for each of the other trades.

The 40-hour week applied to over 90 percent of the book and job workers in each of the trades except the electrotypers and the photoengravers. The electrotypers had scales of less than 37½ hours per week for over 54 percent of their members, more than 45 percent being limited to less than 35 hours. The photoengravers had 27.8 percent of their book and job membership working a 35-hour week, 47.5 percent working a 37½-hour week, and 21.2 percent working on a 40-hour basis. The electrotypers and machine operators were the only book and job occupations for which any scales as low as 30 hours per week were specified. On the other hand, only the bindery women, bookbinders, and cylinder pressmen had scales of weekly hours in excess of 40.

For nearly half of all the union members engaged in newspaper work, 37½ hours constituted a full-time week. This scale of hours applied to 48.6 percent of the members working day shifts and to 47.2 percent of those on night shifts. Scales of over 37½ hours, however, applied to 38.1 percent of the day workers as compared with 16.1 percent of those working nights. Of the members normally working at night, 11.2 percent had scales of less than 35 hours per week, 12.3 percent had a 35-hour scale, and 13.2 percent were working over 35 but less than 37½ hours per week. In contrast only 13.3 percent of the day workers had scales of less than 37½ hours.

Over half of the union members in the typographic occupations had 37½-hour scales for both day and night work on newspapers. No typographic scales permitting over 40 hours per week were reported.

A 40-hour week was specified for 75.6 percent of the newspaper mailers on day shifts and a 37½-hour week for 22 percent. On night shifts, however, 40 percent of the mailers were working less than 37½ hours; 36.3 percent, 37½ hours; and only 21.9 percent, 40 hours. The mailers, photoengravers, pressmen, pressmen in charge, and the stereotypers each had some scales of over 40 hours per week, but only in the case of journeyman pressmen did these longer hours apply to a substantial proportion of the membership.

On the day side over half the stereotypers were working a 40-hour week; over half the pressmen were working less than 40 hours; and over half of the photoengravers and pressmen in charge were working 37½ hours or less. On the night shift over 60 percent of the pressmen and pressmen in charge were working 35 or less hours per week, and about 80 percent of the photoengravers and stereotypers were working under scales of 37½ or less hours per week.

TABLE 12.—*Distribution of Union Members in Each Printing Trade, by Weekly Hours, June 1, 1940*

Trade	Average hours per week	Percent of members whose hours per week were—									
		Under 30	30	Over 30 and under 35	35	Over 35 and under 37½	37½	Over 37½ and under 40	40	Over 40 and under 44	Over 44
All printing trades.....	38.8	0.1	0.4	3.6	5.0	3.4	21.7	1.3	63.8	0.5	0.2 (1)
Book and job.....	39.5		.1	2.2	2.7	.5	7.3	.4	86.5	.1	.2
Bindery women.....	40.0						3.0	(1)	96.1		.9
Bookbinders.....	39.9						4.3	.1	94.5		1.1
Compositors, hand.....	39.5						4.3		95.7		
Electrotypers.....	35.9		.6	45.1	.2	8.9		.6	44.6		
Machine operators.....	39.8		.3		.7		4.5		94.5		
Machine tenders (machinists).....	39.9						3.2		96.8		
Mailers.....	39.7			1.2	.2	4.5	.7		93.4		
Photoengravers.....	37.4				27.8		47.5	3.5	21.2		
Press assistants and feeders.....	40.0						1.7		98.3		
Pressmen, cylinder.....	40.0				.1		2.0		97.4	.5	
Pressmen, platen.....	40.0						1.9		98.1		
Newspaper.....	37.5	.2	.9	6.1	9.1	8.7	47.7	3.0	22.9	1.3	(1) 0.1
Day work.....	38.1	.1	1.3	1.7	6.0	4.2	48.6	4.7	30.9	2.4	(1) .1
Night work.....	37.0	.3	.5	10.4	12.3	13.2	47.2	1.3	14.7	.1	(1)
Compositors, hand.....	37.5										
Day work.....	37.5	.2	1.1	2.7	5.8	8.2	60.1	4.7	17.2		
Night work.....	37.4	.2	.1	1.5	6.8	11.0	66.4	1.3	12.7		
Machine operators.....	37.2										
Day work.....	37.1	.4	4.2	3.4	10.2	8.4	51.8	4.8	16.8		
Night work.....	37.2	.7	1.6	1.7	8.9	9.9	61.8	1.9	13.5		
Machine tenders (machinists).....	37.7										
Day work.....	37.7		.5	1.2	4.3	7.3	62.6	9.2	14.9		
Night work.....	37.6			.9	4.8	10.5	67.3	1.4	15.1		
Mailers.....	38.3										
Day work.....	39.4				.6		22.0	1.6	75.6	.2	
Night work.....	37.6			.4	5.8	33.8	36.3	1.8	21.9		
Photoengravers.....	37.5										
Day work.....	37.6				27.9	.5	40.7	1.6	28.0	1.3	
Night work.....	37.4			12.0	2.7	4.8	61.3	1.9	16.5	.8	
Pressmen (journeymen).....	37.5										
Day work.....	38.9				.1	.2	48.5	8.5	32.0	10.4	.2
Night work.....	35.6			36.0	32.1	11.3	8.9	.3	11.2		.2
Pressmen in charge.....	37.2										
Day work.....	38.5					.7	56.2	5.6	36.0	.9	.4
Night work.....	35.7			30.8	37.3	8.7	9.9	.4	12.7	.2	
Stereotypers.....	37.6										
Day work.....	38.7			2.6	2.0	.3	39.3		54.5	.8	.5
Night work.....	35.9	.4	.5	28.0	10.1	6.6	33.8	.1	19.6	.9	

¹Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

EARNINGS AND HOURS IN THE EMBROIDERIES INDUSTRY, 1940 ¹

Summary

THE hourly earnings of embroidery-shop workers in the principal producing centers averaged 60.2 cents in March 1940. This was revealed by a field survey recently completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The survey, which was made at the request of the Wage and Hour Division, was limited to establishments located in New York City, northern New Jersey, Philadelphia, and Chicago. Plants located in these four centers account for a large majority of the United States production of embroideries, trimmings, and related products.

Over one-half of the wage earners surveyed were in New York City establishments. These workers averaged 70.2 cents an hour, as compared with 53.3 cents in Philadelphia, 46.8 cents in Chicago, and 45.9 cents in northern New Jersey.

The variations in earnings among the four centers arise partly from differences in type of embroideries produced. For example, most of the Schiffli machine and Swiss hand-loom embroideries are produced in the northern New Jersey cities, whereas operations in New York City are largely confined to pleating, Bonnaz embroideries, bindings, and related products.

Some information covering plants located outside the principal centers was obtained by a mail questionnaire. Hourly earnings in the 64 establishments reporting averaged 46.0 cents.

Scope and Method of Survey

The "embroideries industry" has been defined by the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Act as follows:

The production of all kinds of hand- and machine-made embroideries and ornamental stitchings, including, but not by way of limitation, tucking, shirring, smocking, hemstitching, hand rolling, fagoting, Bonnaz embroidery, appliqué, crochet beading, hand drawing, machine drawing, rhinestone trimming, sequin trimming, spangle trimming, eyelets, passementerie, pleating, the application of rhinestones and nailheads, Schiffli embroidery and laces, burnt-out laces and velvets, Swiss hand-loom machine embroidery, thread splitting, embroidery-thread cutting, scallop cutting, lace cutting, lace making-up, making-up of embroidered yard goods, straight cutting of embroidery and cutting out of embroidery, embroidery trimmings, bindings, pipings, and emblems: *Provided, however, That* (1) the foregoing, when produced or performed by a manufacturer of a garment,

¹ Prepared by H. E. Riley, assisted by Edyth M. Bunn, of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics.

fabric, or other article for use on such garment, fabric, or other article and (2) the manufacture of covered buttons and buckles shall not be included.

The above definition was used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in outlining the scope of its survey.² Preliminary examination of the structure of the industry indicated that the establishments making the products or performing the operations included in this definition fall into nine fairly well-defined categories, as follows:

- (1) Automatic Schiffl machine products.
- (2) Pantograph Schiffl machine products.
- (3) Thread cutting and scallop cutting.
- (4) Swiss hand-loom machine products.
- (5) Bonnaz embroideries.
- (6) Hand embroideries.
- (7) Stitching, tucking, and related operations.
- (8) Bias bindings and pipings.
- (9) Upholstery trimmings and related products.

A further grouping of products and operations was made after the field work had been completed, in order to bring together groups of establishments having interrelated operations or similar methods of production. This combination resulted in the four following general product groups:

(a) Schiffl machine products, combining automatic and pantograph Schiffl operations, as well as thread cutting and scallop cutting.

(b) Swiss hand-loom products. (The operations performed by the establishments making these products are quite different from those in other embroideries plants.)

(c) Pleating, stitching, and related operations, including the Bonnaz embroideries, hand embroideries, and stitching operations, all of which are frequently carried on in a single establishment.

(d) Bindings and trimmings, including bias bindings, pipings, upholstery trimmings, and related products. (The manufacture of upholstery trimmings is chiefly confined to a few relatively large establishments, many of whose operations, although varied in nature, compare closely with those carried on in plants making bias bindings and pipings.)

METHOD OF COLLECTING AND ANALYZING DATA

In view of the fact that the large majority of the embroideries establishments are situated in four restricted areas, namely, Chicago, Philadelphia, New York City, and northern New Jersey,³ the gathering of detailed data by personal visit was limited to these districts. For the remaining part of the industry lying outside of these regions, a mail questionnaire was used.

² The survey was made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at the request of the Wage and Hour Division, in order to furnish information for the use of an industry committee appointed by the Administrator to recommend minimum-wage rates in accordance with the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. In making the survey, however, the Bureau has adhered strictly to its customary practice of keeping confidential the information supplied by individual establishments.

³ Including the cities of Guttenberg, West New York, Weehawken, Union City, North Bergen, and adjacent areas.

In some of the tables in this report the figures covering the four embroidery centers noted above have been combined. The resulting data cover by far the largest proportion of the industry, but they cannot be looked upon as presenting the wage structure of the entire industry. Some idea of the level of hourly earnings in the establishments outside of these centers may be obtained from the information collected by the mail questionnaire. However, it should be remembered that the data based on the mail questionnaire are fragmentary and incomplete.

The coverage of the field survey included approximately half of the wage earners in Chicago, Philadelphia, and northern New Jersey, and a third of the employees in New York City establishments. The sample in each center was carefully selected, in order to give adequate representation with respect to such factors as size of establishment, unionization, and type of product. The data obtained in each industry center have been weighted upward in order to give a final set of figures representing the estimated total employment in the four centers. This was done by multiplying the New Jersey, Philadelphia, and Chicago figures by 2 and the New York data by 3.

The survey in the principal embroidery-manufacturing centers was made by the Bureau's regular staff of field representatives, who obtained the required data directly from company records and through interviews with plant officials. The information obtained from each establishment included actual hours worked and earnings received by each employee during a selected pay-roll period.⁴ In transcribing the earnings data, the employees' earnings at regular rates of pay were entered separately from any extra payments received for overtime work. This procedure was necessary because of the fact that the figures were to be used by the Wage and Hour Division in connection with minimum-wage recommendations.⁵ The averages and distributions used in this report are based on earnings at regular rates of pay, exclusive of extra overtime earnings.

The information concerning each employee also included the occupational title, sex, color, and method of wage payment. A description of the duties and an estimate of the degree of skill required were obtained from the plant officials for each occupation. This information supplied a basis for the occupational groupings and skill classifications used in the report. Both production workers and office employees were included in the survey. In presenting the results the earnings of these two classes of workers are shown separately.

⁴ The data obtained from most of the plants surveyed covered a pay-roll period in March 1940.

⁵ Approximately one-fifth of the employees scheduled received some extra overtime pay. The inclusion of these extra earnings would have made the industry hourly average about 1 cent higher than the average based only on regular rates of pay.

Home workers and family workers are employed in several branches of the embroideries industry. The information obtained by the Bureau's field representatives on this subject included all available figures on hours and earnings of both home workers and members of the proprietor's family employed in the establishment during the pay-roll period covered, as well as an estimate of the total payments made to home workers during the calendar year 1939. Earnings of home workers have also been shown separately from other data given in the report.

The mail questionnaire, which was used to obtain information from establishments situated outside the principal producing centers, requested hours and earnings of each employee for the pay-roll period ending nearest March 15, 1940. Each establishment was also asked to estimate the percentage of its total wage outlay during 1939 that was paid for work on each of its several products included in the scope of the survey. This information was used in classifying the plant according to the product groups described above. The plants replying to the questionnaire were also asked to report the number of home workers and the members of the employer's family who were employed during the pay-roll period covered.

The data obtained through the use of the mail questionnaire are presented separately from those reported by the Bureau's field representatives.

DESCRIPTION OF INDUSTRY

As indicated by the definition, the embroideries industry embraces establishments manufacturing a wide variety of products. Many of the operations on these products are quite similar in character, however. For example, most of the tucking, shirring, hemstitching, fagoting, and similar processes are performed by the use of sewing machines. Furthermore, the Bonnaz embroidery machine resembles the sewing machine in many respects, although its use generally requires a higher degree of skill.

The automatic and pantograph Schiffli machines differ from each other only in that the former is controlled by a paper pattern similar to the Jacquard card used in weaving, whereas the latter must be guided by the operator. Both the automatic and the pantograph machines are used chiefly for embroidering garments or fabrics and in the manufacture of laces and embroidered emblems.

As previously mentioned, embroidery thread cutting and scallop cutting are closely related to the Schiffli branch of the industry. The thread-cutting operation consists in removing the surplus threads that join the repeated patterns on the reverse side of the automatic and pantograph Schiffli goods. This operation involves the use of a highly specialized machine, and it is usually carried on in independ-

ent establishments that do the work on a contract basis for the Schiffli plants. Likewise, scallop cutting is chiefly a finishing operation performed on Schiffli products. Scallop cutting is generally done on special equipment and is commonly combined with the embroidery thread-cutting operations.

The Swiss hand-loom machine resembles the Schiffli machine somewhat in appearance, although it does not employ shuttles and is operated entirely by hand. The important feature of the Swiss hand loom is its ability to produce identical designs on both sides of the fabric. For this reason, Swiss hand-loom equipment is used chiefly in embroidering such articles as handkerchiefs and napkins.

In addition to the machine operations, most embroidery establishments (especially those engaged in stitching, pleating, and related operations) employ a considerable number of wage earners who perform hand operations such as hand stitching, hand drawing, sequin and spangle trimming, lace cutting, and similar operations.

As might be expected, embroidery establishments tend to concentrate in or near the principal clothing-manufacturing centers, especially those cities in which women's and children's garments are manufactured. The largest of these centers is the New York metropolitan area. Well over one-half of the establishments are in New York City and northern New Jersey. Moreover, a large majority of the pleating and stitching and the trimmings plants are also in New York City, whereas the greater part of the Schiffli and Swiss hand-loom operations are carried on in the northern New Jersey area. About three-fourths of the plants surveyed in Philadelphia and Chicago were engaged in pleating and stitching operations. The coverage in each of these cities also included several establishments making Schiffli products and trimmings (table 1).

TABLE 1.—Coverage of Field Survey in the Embroideries Industry, by Industry Center and Product, March 1940

Industry center	All products		Schiffli products		Swiss hand-loom products		Pleating, stitching, etc.		Trimmings, etc.	
	Number of plants ¹	Number of workers ²	Number of plants	Number of workers	Number of plants	Number of workers	Number of plants	Number of workers	Number of plants	Number of workers
All centers.....	350	4,399	124	1,199	24	³ 136	160	2,394	33	670
New York City.....	148	2,314	—	—	—	—	119	1,831	28	482
Northern New Jersey....	142	1,185	115	979	—	—	4	71	—	—
Philadelphia.....	28	326	3	41	—	—	22	238	} 45	188
Chicago.....	32	574	6	179	—	—	24	254		

¹ Includes 47 plants having fewer than 3 employees; does not include 2 plants in which only home workers were scheduled.

² Based on unweighted data.

³ Includes 23 plants in northern New Jersey and 1 plant in New York City which were combined in order to avoid disclosing data for individual establishments.

⁴ Combined to avoid disclosing data for individual establishments; includes 3 plants in Philadelphia and 2 plants in Chicago.

Most of the establishments in the embroideries industry are relatively small in size. Of the 352 plants covered by the survey, only 7 had over 100 workers, and only 2 had more than 250 employees (in each of these two, moreover, the number of employees working on products covered by the survey was considerably under 250).⁶

Only 45 of the 352 establishments covered by the field survey reported employment of home workers during 1939. This total included 19 plants in New York City,⁷ 17 in New Jersey, 5 in Chicago, and 4 in Philadelphia. At the time of the survey, only 33 of the establishments scheduled were employing home workers. The home workers reported were chiefly engaged in performing hand operations, including hand embroidery, scallop cutting, mending, etc.

In many of the smaller embroidery establishments, much or all of the work is done by the proprietor and members of his family. This is especially noticeable in the Schiffli and Swiss hand-loom divisions of the industry. Data covering these establishments frequently fail to reflect an adequate picture of the wage structure, because employed members of the proprietor's family are not carried on the employer's records as wage earners. Among the plants covered by the survey, 13 reported family workers for whom complete wage data were not available. With but one exception these plants were located in northern New Jersey. On the other hand, the schedules included a considerable number of members of employers' families who were receiving regular wages or salaries and hence were considered regular wage earners. Furthermore, it is quite likely that the members of the employer's family have not been identified as such in every instance.

Union organization is quite extensive in New York City, Philadelphia, and Chicago, but it is relatively unimportant in the northern New Jersey area. Of the 148 establishments scheduled in New York, all but 16 had contracts with labor organizations. In the New Jersey cities, however, only 10 of the 142 plants covered were operating under union agreements and these were all engaged in manufacturing Swiss hand-loom products. About one-half of the plants in Philadelphia, employing nearly one-half of the wage earners covered, were unionized. In Chicago, 14 of the 32 establishments surveyed, with about one-fourth of the employees, had contracts with labor organizations. The International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, an A. F. of L. affiliate, predominates in the pleating and stitching branch, while the only union contracts among the bias-binding establishments surveyed were with the Textile Workers Union of America, a member of the C. I. O.

⁶ This comparison does not include home workers.

⁷ It should be remembered that the sample included only one-third of the plants in New York City, as against about one-half of the establishments in the other areas surveyed.

Average Hourly Earnings in Principal Manufacturing Centers

The hourly earnings of all wage earners in the principal embroidery-manufacturing centers averaged 60.2 cents in March 1940⁸ (table 2). Examination of the basic data reveals, however, that this figure is virtually meaningless as an indicator of hourly earnings for most of the employees in the industry. It has already been pointed out that, in addition to being chiefly concentrated in four separate centers, the industry embraces a variety of products and operations. As shown by the distribution of plant averages, given in table 3, both of these factors are reflected in the wage structure.⁹

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in the Embroideries Industry, by Industry Center, Skill, and Sex, March 1940

Industry center	All workers			Skilled workers			Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Average hourly earnings												
Total.....	\$0. 602	\$0. 606	\$0. 545	\$0. 952	\$1. 062	\$0. 866	\$0. 490	\$0. 567	\$0. 451	\$0. 371	\$0. 374	\$0. 369
New York City.....	. 702	. 762	. 655	1. 023	1. 134	. 934	. 513	. 592	. 467	. 377	. 374	. 380
Northern New Jersey.....	. 459	. 569	. 414	. 792	. 821	. 660	. 489	. 551	. 454	. 368	. 370	. 368
Philadelphia.....	. 533	. 522	. 538	. 703	. 730	. 693	. 470	. 520	. 451	. 348	. 356	. 338
Chicago.....	. 468	. 579	. 431	. 649	. 784	. 582	. 429	. 537	. 403	. 360	. 387	. 351
Number of workers (weighted)												
Total.....	11, 112	4, 047	7, 065	4, 168	1, 816	2, 352	3, 659	1, 137	2, 522	3, 285	1, 094	2, 191
New York City.....	6, 942	2, 961	3, 981	3, 408	1, 530	1, 878	1, 731	609	1, 122	1, 803	822	981
Northern New Jersey.....	2, 370	620	1, 750	148	122	26	1, 238	392	846	984	106	878
Philadelphia.....	652	198	454	260	62	198	252	58	194	140	78	62
Chicago.....	1, 148	268	880	352	102	250	438	78	360	358	88	270
Percent of workers												
Total.....	100. 0	36. 4	63. 6	37. 6	16. 3	21. 3	32. 9	10. 2	22. 7	29. 5	9. 8	19. 7
New York City.....	100. 0	42. 7	57. 3	49. 1	22. 0	27. 1	25. 0	8. 8	16. 2	25. 9	11. 8	14. 1
Northern New Jersey.....	100. 0	26. 2	73. 8	6. 2	5. 1	1. 1	52. 3	16. 5	35. 8	41. 5	4. 5	37. 0
Philadelphia.....	100. 0	30. 4	69. 6	39. 8	9. 5	30. 3	38. 7	8. 9	29. 8	21. 5	12. 0	9. 5
Chicago.....	100. 0	23. 3	76. 7	30. 7	8. 9	21. 8	38. 1	6. 8	31. 3	31. 2	7. 7	23. 5

Taking only the plants having 3 or more wage earners, it will be observed that a majority of the shops in New York City had averages well above the general level of plant averages in the other producing

⁸ Most of the employees were paid straight time rates. Substantial numbers of piece workers were found, however, among the hand cutters, hand embroiderers, and Swiss hand-loom stitchers.

⁹ In interpreting this table, it must be borne in mind that the distribution includes about one-half of the establishments in Chicago, Philadelphia, and New Jersey, but only one-third of the plants in New York City. It will also be observed that table 3 does not include 47 plants with under 3 employees each and 2 establishments reporting only home workers. In these plants, many essential operations are performed by the proprietors or other persons not listed as wage earners. Hence, the plant average is not representative of a complete manufacturing process.

centers. Thus, 85 of the 136 establishments surveyed in New York City averaged 65 cents an hour or more, whereas only 7 of the 20 covered in Philadelphia and 5 of the 26 covered in Chicago had averages above that level. None of the New Jersey establishments averaged as much as 65 cents an hour.

It is evident that these regional variations are caused partly by the differences in the geographical distribution of the several product groups. The greater part of the pleating and stitching establishments and most of the plants in the smaller trimmings group were in New York City. On the other hand, a large majority of the Schiffli and Swiss hand-loom shops are in northern New Jersey, while there were only four pleating and stitching shops scheduled in that area. It will be noted that the general level of plant averages is lower among Schiffli and Swiss hand-loom than among the pleating and stitching shops. In other words, the wage difference between northern New Jersey and New York City may be due chiefly to the variation in types of plants found in the two localities. Comparison of distributions of pleating and stitching plants in the various centers indicates, however, that the level of earnings in New York City is well above that for the other centers, even when product differences are eliminated. These differences are further revealed by the analysis of the wage structure in each industry center which is presented in the following paragraphs.

NEW YORK CITY

The hourly earnings of all wage earners in New York City establishments averaged 70.2 cents at the time of the survey. Male employees, who made up 42.7 percent of the labor force, averaged 76.2 cents, as compared with 65.5 cents for females. It will be observed that hourly earnings differed greatly among the three skill groups. Thus, the average for skilled workers, who constituted 49.1 percent of the total in New York City, was \$1.023. This was twice the average (51.3 cents) for the semiskilled workers, whose earnings in turn exceeded the average for the unskilled group by 13.6 cents. The earnings of males were substantially above those of females among the skilled and semiskilled groups, but in the unskilled occupations the average for women was slightly above that for men.

The distribution shown in table 4 covers a wide range of individual earnings, with over one-eighth (13.7 percent) of the workers averaging under 35 cents, while one-sixth (17.1 percent) received \$1.275 an hour and over.¹⁰ The table also reveals that there was a marked difference in earnings as between the pleating and stitching and the trim-

¹⁰ In this and the following tables it has been necessary in several instances to combine data where the survey included an insufficient number of workers in a skill-sex group to permit the presentation of a distribution. In a few cases also, combinations have been made to avoid disclosing data for individual establishments.

tings establishments, the average for the former amounting to 77.7 cents, as against 48.5 cents in the latter group of plants. This is due chiefly to the fact that the earnings in higher brackets were largely confined to employees in pleating and stitching establishments. Thus, only 4.4 percent of the workers in trimmings shops averaged as much as 87.5 cents or more, whereas nearly two-fifths (39.6 percent) of the pleating and stitching workers received hourly earnings above that figure. On the other hand, a substantial percentage of the employees in both product groups were in the lower-wage classes, the proportion averaging under 35 cents, for example, amounting to 12.3 percent in pleating and stitching and 18.8 percent in trimmings plants.

TABLE 3.—*Distribution of Plants in the Embroideries Industry, by Plant Average Hourly Earnings, Industry Center, and Product, March 1940*

Plant average hourly earnings	Total					New York City		
	All products	Schiffli products	Swiss handloom products	Pleating, stitching, etc.	Trim-mings, etc.	All products	Pleating, stitching, etc.	Trim-mings, etc.
30.0 and under 35.0 cents	6		2	4				
35.0 and under 40.0 cents	18	7	4	4	3	4	1	3
40.0 and under 45.0 cents	47	28	4	6	9	9	3	6
45.0 and under 50.0 cents	73	50	4	9	10	12	4	8
50.0 and under 55.0 cents	22	13		4	5	8	3	5
55.0 and under 60.0 cents	26	10		14	2	9	7	2
60.0 and under 65.0 cents	14	3		11		9	9	
65.0 and under 70.0 cents	18			17	1	14	13	1
70.0 and under 75.0 cents	18			18		13	13	
75.0 and under 80.0 cents	16			16		13	13	
80.0 and under 85.0 cents	11			11		11	11	
85.0 and under 90.0 cents	13			13		13	13	
90.0 and under 95.0 cents	7			7		7	7	
95.0 cents and over	14			14		14	14	
Total	¹ 303	111	14	148	30	136	111	25

Plant average hourly earnings	Northern New Jersey				Philadelphia				Chicago		
	All products	Schiffli products	Swiss handloom products	Pleating, stitching, etc.	All products	Schiffli products	Pleating, stitching, etc.	Trim-mings, etc.	All products	Schiffli products	Pleating, stitching, etc.
30.0 and under 35.0 cents	2		2		2		2		2		2
35.0 and under 40.0 cents	13	6	4	3					1	1	
40.0 and under 45.0 cents	30	26	4		2		1	1	6	2	4
45.0 and under 50.0 cents	49	45	4		7	3	2	2	5	2	3
50.0 and under 55.0 cents	13	13			1		1				
55.0 and under 60.0 cents	11	10		1	1		1		5		5
60.0 and under 65.0 cents	3	3							2		2
65.0 and under 70.0 cents					3		3		1		1
70.0 and under 75.0 cents					3		3		2		2
75.0 and under 80.0 cents					1		1		2		2
80.0 and under 85.0 cents											
85.0 and under 90.0 cents											
90.0 and under 95.0 cents											
95.0 cents and over											
Total	121	103	14	4	20	3	14	3	26	5	² 21

¹ Does not include 47 plants with under 3 employees and 2 plants employing home workers only.

² Includes 2 plants making trimmings.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in the Embroideries Industry in New York City, by Average Hourly Earnings, Product, Skill, and Sex, March 1940

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All products											
	All workers			Skilled workers			Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 30.0	1.5	1.4	1.5				0.9		1.3	4.8	5.1	4.6
Exactly 30.0	5.4	6.0	5.0				4.5	3.0	5.3	16.4	19.4	14.1
30.1 and under 32.5	2.3	1.1	3.2				2.8		4.3	6.2	4.0	8.0
32.5 and under 35.0	4.5	5.1	4.1	0.1		0.2	2.3	2.0	2.4	15.1	16.8	13.8
35.0 and under 37.5	6.4	5.8	6.9				8.8	7.4	9.6	16.1	15.3	16.7
37.5 and under 40.0	3.2	1.9	4.1	.2		.3	4.7	2.0	6.1	7.3	5.6	8.9
40.0 and under 42.5	6.1	3.9	7.7	.4	0.4	.5	12.2	7.4	15.0	11.0	7.7	13.8
42.5 and under 47.5	6.1	5.5	6.6	.8	.6	1.0	13.9	9.9	16.4	8.7	11.3	6.4
47.5 and under 52.5	5.5	4.9	6.0	1.2	.4	1.9	10.9	8.9	12.0	8.5	10.2	7.0
52.5 and under 57.5	3.7	3.2	4.0	1.3	1.0	1.6	9.5	10.3	9.1	2.5	2.2	2.8
57.5 and under 62.5	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.1	1.4	1.0	4.2	5.4	3.5	.7	.7	.6
62.5 and under 67.5	2.5	2.1	2.7	2.1	1.8	2.4	4.2	4.4	4.0	1.5	1.1	1.8
67.5 and under 72.5	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.1	1.8	2.4	3.6	5.4	2.7	.8	.7	.9
72.5 and under 77.5	2.1	2.2	2.0	3.2	2.7	3.5	2.1	3.9	1.1	.2		.3
77.5 and under 82.5	2.0	3.6	.8	1.6	2.0	1.3	4.9	12.7	.5			
82.5 and under 87.5	12.6	5.9	17.5	22.2	7.7	33.8	6.6	8.9	5.3	.2		.3
87.5 and under 92.5	4.4	1.8	6.3	8.1	2.0	13.1	1.6	3.9	.3			
92.5 and under 97.5	2.0	1.3	2.6	3.8	2.0	5.3	.7	1.5	.3			
97.5 and under 102.5	4.0	3.3	4.5	7.4	5.3	9.1	1.6	3.0	.8			
102.5 and under 107.5	.7	.8	.7	1.5	1.6	1.4						
107.5 and under 112.5	.1	.1	.2	.3	.2	.3						
112.5 and under 117.5	2.9	6.0	.5	5.8	11.5	1.1						
117.5 and under 122.5	.5	1.0	.1	1.0	2.0	.2						
122.5 and under 127.5	.4	.9	.1	.9	1.8	.2						
127.5 and under 132.5	13.3	20.4	8.0	26.9	39.1	17.0						
132.5 and under 137.5	1.9	3.6	.7	4.0	7.1	1.4						
137.5 and over	1.9	4.0	.5	4.0	7.6	1.0						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	6,942	2,961	3,981	3,408	1,530	1,878	1,731	609	1,122	1,803	822	981
Average hourly earnings	\$0.702	\$0.762	\$0.655	\$1.023	\$1.134	\$0.934	\$0.513	\$0.592	\$0.467	\$0.377	\$0.374	\$0.380

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Pleating, stitching, etc.											
	All workers			Skilled workers			Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Under 30.0	1.7	1.6	1.9				1.6		2.4	6.0	6.7	5.6
Exactly 30.0	5.6	5.7	5.6				7.5	5.3	8.6	17.7	20.7	15.6
30.1 and under 32.5	2.1	.9	3.0				1.9		2.9	7.3	3.9	9.6
32.5 and under 35.0	2.9	4.5	1.8	0.1		0.2	.6	.9	.5	11.1	18.4	6.3
35.0 and under 37.5	5.7	3.9	7.0				9.9	6.2	12.0	16.4	12.3	18.8
37.5 and under 40.0	2.3	1.5	3.0				2.5	.9	3.3	7.8	5.6	9.3
40.0 and under 42.5	4.2	2.4	5.5	.1	0.2		8.1	3.5	10.5	11.1	7.3	13.7
42.5 and under 47.5	4.1	4.1	4.1	.5	.2	.7	10.6	8.8	11.5	8.0	11.2	5.9
47.5 and under 52.5	4.8	3.7	5.6	1.1	.2	1.8	12.0	9.7	13.3	8.3	8.9	7.8
52.5 and under 57.5	2.3	1.3	3.0	1.0	.2	1.7	6.2	4.4	7.2	2.4	2.2	2.6
57.5 and under 62.5	1.2	1.5	1.0	.8	1.1	.7	3.4	5.3	2.4	.4		.7
62.5 and under 67.5	2.5	1.9	3.0	1.6	1.1	2.0	6.2	5.3	6.7	2.0	1.7	2.2
67.5 and under 72.5	1.9	1.5	2.2	1.5	.9	2.0	4.3	4.4	4.3	1.1	1.1	1.1
72.5 and under 77.5	1.7	1.2	2.0	2.2	1.3	2.8	2.2	2.7	1.9	.2		.4
77.5 and under 82.5	2.2	4.4	.6	1.1	1.5	.8	8.7	23.1	1.0			
82.5 and under 87.5	15.2	6.2	21.3	23.5	8.3	35.0	8.7	8.0	9.1	.2		.4
87.5 and under 92.5	5.3	1.9	7.7	8.5	1.7	13.6	2.2	5.3	.5			
92.5 and under 97.5	2.5	1.5	3.1	3.9	1.7	5.5	1.2	2.7	.5			
97.5 and under 102.5	4.9	3.9	5.6	7.7	5.4	9.5	2.2	3.5	1.4			
102.5 and under 107.5	.8	.7	.8	1.3	1.1	1.5						
107.5 and under 112.5	.2	.1	.2	.3	.2	.3						
112.5 and under 117.5	3.5	7.5	.6	6.0	12.4	1.2						
117.5 and under 122.5	.5	1.2	.1	.9	2.0	.2						
122.5 and under 127.5	.4	.8	.1	.7	1.3	.2						
127.5 and under 132.5	16.5	26.1	9.8	28.8	42.9	17.8						
132.5 and under 137.5	2.5	4.8	.8	4.2	7.8	1.5						
137.5 and over	2.5	5.2	.6	4.2	8.5	1.0						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	5,496	2,256	3,240	3,183	1,380	1,803	966	339	627	1,347	537	810
Average hourly earnings	\$0.777	\$0.852	\$0.722	\$1.050	\$1.183	\$0.952	\$0.550	\$0.624	\$0.505	\$0.378	\$0.370	\$0.386

¹ Includes 3 workers engaged in the manufacture of Swiss hand-loom products.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in the Embroideries Industry in New York City, by Average Hourly Earnings, Product, Skill, and Sex, March 1940—Con.

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Trimmings, etc.									
	All workers			Skilled work- ers ¹	Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Fe- male		Total	Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male
Under 30.0	0.4	0.9						1.3	2.1	
Exactly 30.0	4.6	6.8	2.4		0.8		1.2	13.2	16.8	7.0
30.1 and under 32.5	2.9	1.7	4.0		3.9		6.1	2.6	4.2	
32.5 and under 35.0	10.9	6.8	14.6		4.3	3.3	4.8	27.1	13.7	49.2
35.0 and under 37.5	8.9	11.8	6.1		7.5	8.9	6.7	15.8	21.1	7.0
37.5 and under 40.0	6.2	3.4	8.9	2.7	7.5	3.3	9.7	5.9	5.3	7.0
40.0 and under 42.5	13.6	8.5	18.3	5.3	17.6	12.2	20.6	10.5	8.4	14.0
42.5 and under 47.5	14.0	9.7	17.9	5.3	18.4	11.1	22.5	10.5	11.6	8.8
47.5 and under 52.5	8.3	8.5	8.1	2.7	9.4	7.8	10.3	9.2	12.6	3.5
52.5 and under 57.5	8.9	9.4	8.5	5.3	13.7	17.8	11.5	2.6	2.1	3.5
57.5 and under 62.5	3.9	3.8	4.0	5.3	5.1	5.6	4.8	1.3	2.1	
62.5 and under 67.5	2.3	3.0	1.6	9.3	1.6	3.3	.6			
67.5 and under 72.5	3.1	4.7	1.6	10.7	2.7	6.7	.6			
72.5 and under 77.5	3.7	5.5	2.0	17.3	2.0	5.6				
77.5 and under 82.5	1.2	1.3	1.2	8.0						
82.5 and under 87.5	2.7	4.7	.8	4.0	3.9	10.0	.6			
87.5 and under 92.5	.8	1.7		2.7	.8	2.2				
92.5 and under 97.5	.4	.9		2.7						
97.5 and under 102.5	.8	1.7		2.7	.8	2.2				
102.5 and under 107.5	.6	1.3		4.0						
107.5 and under 112.5										
112.5 and under 117.5	.4	.9		2.7						
117.5 and under 122.5	.2	.4		1.3						
122.5 and under 127.5	.6	1.3		4.0						
127.5 and under 132.5	.6	1.3		4.0						
132.5 and under 137.5										
137.5 and over										
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	1,446	705	741	225	765	270	495	456	285	171
Average hourly earnings	\$0.485	\$0.538	\$0.434	\$0.747	\$0.475	\$0.558	\$0.430	\$0.374	\$0.382	\$0.360

¹ Data insufficient to show distribution by sex.

It will be observed that hourly earnings in each skill-sex group, especially among the pleating and stitching establishments, tend to concentrate at several levels. Examination of the basic data reveals that this is a result of the high proportion of workers receiving various specified wage rates provided in the standard union contracts which have been entered into by a large majority of the New York City establishments.

As previously noted, union organization is quite common among the New York City plants. There is some evidence that the level of hourly earnings is generally higher in the union than in the nonunion plants. For example, among the New York City pleating and stitching establishments, all but one of the 8 nonunion plants with 3 or more employees averaged under 55 cents an hour. On the other hand, of the 103 union shops with 3 or more workers, only 4 had averages under 55 cents.

NORTHERN NEW JERSEY

Earnings of all wage earners in northern New Jersey averaged 45.9 cents an hour. About one-fourth (26.2 percent) of the workers were males, who averaged 56.9 cents. In comparison, the females received

earnings of 41.4 cents an hour. The small group of skilled workers averaged 79.2 cents, which was 30.3 cents above the wage level of the semiskilled workers, who constituted a majority (52.3 percent) of the labor force. Earnings of semiskilled workers exceeded the

TABLE 5.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in the Embroideries Industry in Northern New Jersey, by Average Hourly Earnings, Product, Skill, and Sex, March 1940

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	All products									
	All workers			Skilled work- ers ¹	Semiskilled workers			Unskilled workers		
	Total	Male	Female		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Exactly 30.0.....	7.9	5.2	8.9	-----	3.6	2.0	4.3	14.6	22.6	13.7
30.1 and under 32.5.....	1.2	-----	1.6	-----	.3	-----	.5	2.4	-----	2.7
32.5 and under 35.0.....	1.4	-----	1.8	-----	1.1	-----	1.7	1.8	-----	2.1
35.0 and under 37.5.....	24.3	12.3	28.7	-----	12.6	6.6	15.4	42.9	47.3	42.3
37.5 and under 40.0.....	6.8	2.3	8.5	-----	2.7	1.5	3.3	13.0	7.5	13.7
40.0 and under 42.5.....	10.1	2.9	12.7	-----	8.1	2.6	10.6	14.2	7.5	15.0
42.5 and under 47.5.....	11.4	6.1	13.3	2.7	15.4	8.2	18.7	7.7	3.8	8.2
47.5 and under 52.5.....	15.5	13.5	16.2	8.1	26.8	17.9	30.6	2.6	7.5	2.1
52.5 and under 57.5.....	6.7	11.9	4.8	1.4	12.4	18.4	9.7	.2	1.9	-----
57.5 and under 62.5.....	5.3	13.9	2.3	9.5	9.0	19.3	4.3	-----	-----	-----
62.5 and under 67.5.....	2.9	9.4	.6	4.1	4.8	13.8	.7	.2	-----	.2
67.5 and under 72.5.....	1.3	4.5	.1	9.5	1.1	3.6	-----	.2	1.9	-----
72.5 and under 77.5.....	1.4	4.8	.1	12.2	1.1	3.1	.2	-----	-----	-----
77.5 and under 82.5.....	1.7	6.1	.1	21.5	.6	2.0	-----	-----	-----	-----
82.5 and under 87.5.....	.3	1.0	.1	5.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
87.5 and under 92.5.....	.5	1.6	.1	8.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
92.5 and under 97.5.....	.3	1.0	-----	2.7	.2	.5	-----	-----	-----	-----
97.5 and over.....	1.0	3.5	.1	14.8	.2	.5	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	2,370	620	1,750	148	1,238	392	846	984	106	878
Average hourly earnings..	\$0.459	\$0.509	\$0.414	\$0.792	\$0.489	\$0.551	\$0.454	\$0.368	\$0.370	\$0.368

Average hourly earnings (in cents)	Schiffli products						Swiss hand-loom products				Pleat- ing, stitch- ing, etc.; all work- ers ¹	
	All workers			Skilled work- ers ¹	Semiskilled workers			Un- skilled work- ers ¹	All work- ers	Semi- skilled work- ers		Un- skilled work- ers
	Total	Male	Fe- male		Total	Male	Fe- male					
Exactly 30.0	6.3	4.0	7.2		2.1		2.9	13.4	18.5	17.8	19.0	9.9
30.1 and under 32.5	.9		1.2		.4		.5	1.8	3.0		5.1	1.4
32.5 and under 35.0	1.0		1.4		.4		.5	2.1	.7	1.8		7.0
35.0 and under 37.5	23.7	9.1	28.8		10.1	5.2	12.1	46.8	20.0	21.3	19.0	43.6
37.5 and under 40.0	4.9	2.0	5.9		2.3	.7	2.9	9.4	23.0	5.4	35.3	2.8
40.0 and under 42.5	10.0	3.2	12.4		9.1	3.3	11.5	13.1	11.9		20.3	8.5
42.5 and under 47.5	12.9	6.3	15.2	2.8	16.6	8.5	20.1	9.4	2.2	5.4		8.5
47.5 and under 52.5	17.6	14.2	18.7	6.9	29.4	19.6	33.6	3.1	3.7	7.1	1.3	9.9
52.5 and under 57.5	7.6	13.4	5.5	1.4	13.7	21.5	10.5	.3	1.5	3.6		4.2
57.5 and under 62.5	5.9	15.1	2.8	9.7	9.7	21.5	4.8		3.7	8.9		
62.5 and under 67.5	2.6	8.7	.4	4.2	4.0	13.1	.3	.3	5.2	12.5		2.8
67.5 and under 72.5	1.2	4.3	.1	9.7	.8	2.6		.3	2.2	5.4		
72.5 and under 77.5	1.4	5.1	.1	12.5	1.0	2.6	.3		1.5	3.6		
77.5 and under 82.5	1.7	6.3	.1	22.2	.2	.7			2.2	5.4		
82.5 and under 87.5	.4	1.2	.1	5.6								
87.5 and under 92.5	.6	2.0	.1	8.3								
92.5 and under 97.5	.2	.8		2.8					.7	1.8		
97.5 and over	1.1	4.3		13.9	.2	.7						1.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	1,958	506	1,452	144	1,052	306	746	762	270	112	158	142
Average hourly earnings	\$0.469	\$0.583	\$0.422	\$0.791	\$0.492	\$0.553	\$0.461	\$0.371	\$0.414	\$0.489	\$0.361	\$0.401

¹ Data insufficient to show distributions for other classifications.

average for the unskilled group by 12.1 cents. In each skill group, it will be observed, earnings of males were higher than those of females, although the difference was negligible among the unskilled workers and less for the semiskilled than the skilled occupations.

According to the distribution shown in table 5, the earnings of a majority of the workers fell within the relatively narrow range of 35 and under 52.5 cents an hour, 68.1 percent of the total being found in these wage classes. Although one-fifth (21.4 percent) of the employees averaged 52.5 cents or more, only 2.1 percent received as much as 82.5 cents and over.

Relatively little difference was found among the averages for the three product groups predominating in this center. The average for Schiffli products was 46.9 cents, as against 41.4 cents in Swiss hand-loom shops and 40.1 cents in the small group of pleating and stitching establishments. It will be observed that the majority of the employees in higher-wage brackets were in skilled Schiffli operations. Most of these workers were males, a large majority being employed as Schiffli pantograph stitchers. Furthermore, none of the skilled workers averaged under 42.5 cents, whereas 28.4 percent of the semiskilled and 88.9 percent of the unskilled employees received less than that amount.

Among the establishments surveyed, union organization was confined to a few Swiss hand-loom plants. Although plant averages in this branch were generally higher among the union than among non-union establishments, the difference was probably due chiefly to the fact that most of the plants without labor agreements are family-operated shops; whereas union organization is confined to establishments employing skilled operatives.

PHILADELPHIA

In the Philadelphia plants covered by the survey, the earnings of all workers averaged 53.3 cents an hour. The males averaged 52.2 cents an hour, which was 1.6 cents under the wage level for all females. It will be observed that, taking each skill group separately, the males' earnings exceeded the average for females. In the total labor force, however, the skilled females, who averaged 69.3 cents, constituted the largest skill-sex group, accounting for 30.3 percent of all wage earners. Among the males, on the other hand, the unskilled workers, who averaged only 35.6 cents, made up the largest group, totaling 12.0 percent of the working force and 39.5 percent of all males in the Philadelphia embroidery establishments. In other words, the higher wage level for females as compared with males was due to the fact that a larger proportion of the former than of the latter were in skilled occupations.

The hourly earnings of individual employees ranged from less than 30 to over 97.5 cents. (See table 6.) Over one-fourth (26.1 percent) averaged less than 35 cents an hour, but better than a sixth (16.9 percent) received as much as 82.5 cents or more. It will be observed that most of the higher hourly earnings were received by the skilled workers, including both males and females. On the other hand, one-eighth (12.3 percent) of the skilled employees were paid 30 cents an hour or less.

TABLE 6.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in the Embroideries Industry in Philadelphia, by Average Hourly Earnings, Product, Skill, and Sex, March 1940

Average hourly earnings	All products ¹					Un- skilled work- ers ²
	All workers			Skilled work- ers ²	Semi- skilled work- ers ²	
	Total	Male	Female			
Under 30.0 cents.....	0.6		0.9	0.8		1.4
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	19.1	18.1	19.3	11.5	10.3	48.6
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	2.1	2.0	2.2		4.0	2.9
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	4.3	4.0	4.4		5.6	10.0
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	5.8	6.1	5.7		6.3	15.7
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	5.2	8.1	4.0	3.1	9.5	1.4
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	2.1	5.1	.9	.8	2.4	4.3
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	14.5	10.1	16.3	6.9	23.8	11.4
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	4.9	7.1	4.0	2.3	8.7	2.9
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	6.7	7.1	6.6	5.4	11.9	
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	1.5	3.0	.9	.8	3.2	
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	7.2	5.1	7.9	9.2	8.7	
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	6.1	8.1	5.3	11.5	3.2	1.4
72.5 and under 77.5 cents.....	2.1	3.0	1.8	4.6	.8	
77.5 and under 82.5 cents.....	.9	1.0	.9	2.3		
82.5 and under 87.5 cents.....	5.5	1.0	7.5	13.8		
87.5 and under 92.5 cents.....	1.2	4.0		2.3	.8	
92.5 and under 97.5 cents.....	8.4	2.0	11.0	20.9		
97.5 cents and over.....	1.8	5.1	.4	3.8	.8	
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	652	198	454	260	252	140
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.533	\$0.522	\$0.538	\$0.703	\$0.470	\$0.348

¹ Data insufficient to show separate distributions for each product.

² Data insufficient to show separate distributions by sex.

The effect of union organization on earnings in the Philadelphia plants is illustrated by the fact that among the pleating and stitching shops with 3 or more employees, none of the 4 nonunion establishments averaged over 55 cents, whereas only 2 of the 10 union plants had averages under that figure.

CHICAGO

The hourly earnings of wage earners in Chicago establishments averaged 46.8 cents at the time of the survey. Males, who made up 23.3 percent of the working force, averaged 57.9 cents, which may be compared with 43.1 cents for females. Three-tenths of the workers were employed in skilled occupations. The average (64.9 cents) for this group was 22.0 cents above the level for the semiskilled and 28.9 cents higher than the average earnings of the unskilled employees.

Within each skill group, it will be noted, the earnings of males exceeded those of females, the differences amounting to 20.2, 13.4, and 3.6 cents, respectively, for the skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled workers.

TABLE 7.—Percentage Distribution of Workers in the Embroideries Industry in Chicago, by Average Hourly Earnings, Product, Skill, and Sex, March 1940

Average hourly earnings	All products							
	All workers			Skilled workers			Semi-skilled workers ¹	Unskilled workers ¹
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female		
Under 30.0 cents.....	0.7	1.5	0.5					2.2
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	5.9	4.5	6.4				0.9	17.9
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	3.5		4.5	2.3		3.2	5.9	1.7
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	14.3	8.2	16.0	4.0		5.6	12.3	26.8
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	12.5	7.5	14.1	6.2		8.8	11.4	20.1
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	5.9	3.0	6.8	4.5	2.0	5.6	6.4	6.7
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	8.9	3.0	10.7	2.8		4.0	16.4	5.6
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	13.9	11.2	14.8	2.8		4.0	23.2	13.4
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	5.7	5.2	5.9	6.2		8.8	7.8	2.8
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	7.0	10.4	5.9	10.3	7.8	11.2	8.2	2.2
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	2.4	3.0	2.3	6.8	3.9	8.0	.5	.6
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	4.9	10.4	3.2	10.3	11.8	9.6	4.6	
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	3.5	6.0	2.7	10.3	11.8	9.6	.9	
72.5 and under 77.5 cents.....	3.0	8.2	1.4	9.7	21.5	4.8		
77.5 and under 82.5 cents.....	1.6	5.2	.5	4.5	11.8	1.6	.5	
82.5 and under 87.5 cents.....	.7	3.0		1.7	5.9		.5	
87.5 and under 92.5 cents.....	1.7	6.0	.5	5.1	13.7	1.6	.5	
92.5 and under 97.5 cents.....	.2		.2	.6		.8		
97.5 cents and over.....	3.7	3.7	3.6	11.9	9.8	12.8		
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	1,148	268	880	352	102	250	438	358
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.468	\$0.579	\$0.431	\$0.649	\$0.784	\$0.582	\$0.429	\$0.360

Average hourly earnings	Schiffli products					Pleating, stitching, etc. ²				
	All workers			Semi-skilled workers ¹	Unskilled workers ¹	All workers			Semi-skilled workers ¹	Unskilled workers ¹
	Total	Male	Female			Total	Male	Female		
Under 30.0 cents.....						1.0	2.4	0.6		3.8
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	5.6	5.8	5.5		13.5	6.1	3.7	6.7	1.5	21.0
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	2.2		31.0	3.5	1.4	4.1		5.1	2.6	7.5
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	14.0	5.8	17.4	11.8	20.2	14.3	9.8	15.8	4.5	12.7
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	17.9	5.8	22.9	9.4	32.3	10.1	8.5	10.5	7.1	12.7
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	7.8	3.8	9.4	3.5	13.5	5.1	2.4	5.8	4.5	8.2
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	9.5	5.8	11.0	14.1	6.8	8.6	1.2	10.5	3.2	18.0
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	18.4	7.7	22.9	32.9	5.4	11.9	13.5	11.6	2.6	17.2
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	5.0	7.7	39.0	5.9	4.1	6.1	3.7	6.7	6.4	9.0
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	6.7	15.4	31.0	10.6	1.4	7.1	7.3	7.0	10.3	6.7
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	.6	1.9			1.4	3.3	3.7	3.2	7.7	.7
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	3.9	11.5	.8	5.9		5.3	9.8	4.2	10.3	3.7
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	.6	1.9		1.2		4.8	8.5	3.8	11.5	.7
72.5 and under 77.5 cents.....	2.2	7.7				3.3	8.5	1.9	8.3	
77.5 and under 82.5 cents.....	.6	1.9		1.2		2.0	7.3	.6	5.1	
82.5 and under 87.5 cents.....	1.1	3.8				.5	2.4		.6	.7
87.5 and under 92.5 cents.....	1.7	5.8				1.8	6.1	.6	3.8	.7
92.5 and under 97.5 cents.....						.3		.3	.6	
97.5 cents and over.....	2.2	7.7				4.3	1.2	5.1	10.9	
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.....	358	104	254	170	148	790	164	626	312	268
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.451	\$0.599	\$0.388	\$0.444	\$0.364	\$0.477	\$0.565	\$0.451	\$0.624	\$0.419

¹ Data insufficient to show distribution by sex.

² Includes employees in 2 plants engaged in the manufacture of trimmings, etc.

³ Includes 40 skilled workers for whom no distribution is shown.

As table 7 indicates, the range of earnings extended from under 30 to over 97.5 cents an hour. Nearly one-fourth (24.4 percent) of the workers averaged under 35 cents, whereas only 7.9 percent received 77.5 cents or more. The average for employees in Schiffli plants was 45.1 cents an hour, which may be compared with 47.7 cents for those employed in pleating and stitching and in trimmings establishments. In both product groups the distribution of earnings was spread over a wide range. Thus, 21.8 percent of the workers in Schiffli, as compared with 25.5 percent in pleating and stitching plants, averaged under 35 cents an hour. At the other extreme, 5.6 percent in Schiffli establishments and 8.9 percent in the pleating and stitching shops received as much as 77.5 cents or more.

Union organization in Chicago was limited almost entirely to the pleating and stitching establishments. All but one of the nonunion shops in this branch averaged less than 50 cents an hour, whereas all the establishments with union contracts had wage levels above 55 cents an hour.

Hourly Earnings in Relation to Fair Labor Standards Act

A minimum wage rate of 30 cents an hour for industries engaged in interstate commerce was in effect, at the time of the survey, under provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The application of this provision has apparently caused a certain amount of concentration at the 30-cent level in this industry. Thus, among all wage earners in the shops covered by the survey, 6.8 percent were receiving exactly 30 cents an hour in March 1940. The proportion was 5.4 percent in New York City, 7.9 percent in northern New Jersey, 19.1 percent in Philadelphia, and 5.9 percent in Chicago.

The Embroidery Minimum Wage Committee appointed by the Wage and Hour Administrator has recommended a minimum wage rate of 37.5 cents an hour, to apply to all branches of the industry. Some idea as to the effect of this proposed minimum in the various industry centers may be obtained by considering the proportion of workers found to be receiving less than that amount. In New York City, this group constituted 18.0 percent of the workers in the pleating and stitching branch and 27.7 percent in trimmings plants. For northern New Jersey the respective percentages were 31.9 in Schiffli plants, 42.2 in Swiss hand-loom shops, and 61.9 among the small group of pleating and stitching employees. Among the Philadelphia embroidery workers, 31.9 percent received hourly earnings of less than 37.5 cents, while in Chicago 39.7 percent in Schiffli and 35.6 percent in pleating and stitching shops were in this group.

Occupational Differences

Table 8 presents average hourly earnings for the various occupational groups. Examination of the data reveals that the hourly earnings of workers in different jobs varied widely. Among the skilled males, for example, the Bonnaz-machine operators and tuckers were the most highly paid, averaging \$1.308 and \$1.303 an hour, respectively. On the other hand, the stitchers on Schiffli pantograph machines averaged only 76.6 cents an hour. The tuckers were the highest paid of the skilled females, averaging \$1.112 an hour. The working forewomen had the lowest average among the skilled occupational groups for which separate figures could be shown. For female ornamental stitchers, who were the most numerous of any occupational group in the industry, the average was 81.3 cents.

TABLE 8.—Average Hourly Earnings, Weekly Hours, and Weekly Earnings of Workers in the Embroideries Industry, by Skill, Sex, and Occupation, March 1940

Skill, sex, and occupation	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings	Skill, sex, and occupation	Average hourly earnings	Average weekly hours	Average weekly earnings
<i>Skilled workers</i>				<i>Semiskilled workers—Con.</i>			
<i>Males:</i>				<i>Males—Continued.</i>			
Bonnaz-machine operators.....	\$1.308	22.4	\$29.36	Watchers, Schiffli.....	\$0.563	51.1	\$28.77
Designers.....	.944	40.2	37.91	Miscellaneous semi-skilled.....	.565	34.7	19.59
Foremen, working.....	.983	40.0	39.35	<i>Females:</i>			
Pleaters, hand.....	.961	25.8	24.81	Clerks.....	.382	41.8	15.96
Shirring-machine operators.....	.784	30.9	24.25	Embroiderers, hand.....	.437	32.7	14.26
Stitchers, ornamental.....	.852	25.2	21.46	Hemstitching-machine operators.....	.585	29.0	16.96
Stitchers, Schiffli (pantograph).....	.766	36.9	28.22	Menders, Schiffli.....	.501	41.3	20.66
Tuckers.....	1.303	28.1	36.56	Pressers.....	.343	34.5	11.81
Miscellaneous skilled.....	.885	35.1	31.08	Stampers.....	.442	31.0	13.70
<i>Females:</i>				Stitchers, plain.....	.456	34.8	15.88
Bonnaz-machine operators.....	.895	26.7	23.87	Watchers, Schiffli.....	.448	42.0	18.83
Designers.....	.697	33.5	23.37	Miscellaneous semi-skilled.....	.414	31.8	13.17
Forewomen, working.....	.643	40.1	25.81	<i>Unskilled workers</i>			
Menders, Bonnaz.....	.904	21.9	19.83	<i>Males:</i>			
Shirring-machine operators.....	.887	31.1	27.59	Cutters, hand.....	.410	38.4	15.72
Stitchers, ornamental.....	.813	26.7	21.67	Errand boys.....	.349	38.6	13.46
Tuckers.....	1.112	29.8	33.14	Floormen.....	.418	35.3	14.77
Miscellaneous skilled.....	.568	32.0	18.16	Learners.....	.483	35.4	17.08
<i>Semiskilled workers</i>				Shuttlers, Schiffli.....	.359	43.3	15.54
<i>Males:</i>				Miscellaneous unskilled.....	.403	37.4	15.10
Clerks.....	.561	40.3	22.61	<i>Females:</i>			
Cutters, machine.....	.667	38.7	25.80	Cutters, hand.....	.379	23.4	8.89
Pressers.....	.473	38.1	18.03	Errand girls.....	.307	36.5	11.19
Stampers.....	.641	27.0	17.32	Finishers and examiners.....	.361	33.6	12.13
Stitchers, Swiss handloom.....	.595	38.4	22.86	Floor girls.....	.365	32.5	11.86
				Learners.....	.443	34.6	15.35
				Shuttlers, Schiffli.....	.364	45.0	16.36
				Spanners.....	.371	36.8	13.64
				Miscellaneous unskilled.....	.351	37.2	13.06

Among the semiskilled workers the averages for males ranged from 66.7 cents for machine cutters to 47.3 cents for pressers. The Schiffli-machine watchers, who constituted the largest occupational group in this skill-sex category, averaged 56.3 cents an hour. The earnings of

semiskilled females varied from 58.5 cents for hemstitching-machine operators to 34.3 cents for the small group of pressers. Plain stitchers, who averaged 45.6 cents, made up the largest group of semiskilled females.

For the unskilled males, hourly earnings varied from 48.3 cents for learners to 34.9 cents for the large group of errand boys. Learners were also highest paid among the unskilled females, averaging 44.3 cents an hour, while the small group of errand girls received the lowest average, which was 30.7 cents an hour.

Both men and women are employed in most of the leading embroidery occupations. It will be observed that the earnings of males were usually above those of females within the same occupation. Among the skilled employees, for example, the average for male Bonnaz-machine operators was 41.3 cents above the level for females in that job. The difference in favor of males amounted to 24.7 cents for designers, 3.9 cents for ornamental stitchers, and 19.1 cents for tuckers. On the other hand, the female shirring-machine operators averaged 10.3 cents more than the males in that occupation. Among the semiskilled employees the difference in favor of males was 13.0 cents for pressers, 19.9 cents for stampers, and 11.5 cents for Schiffli-machine watchers. In the unskilled occupations, males received 3.1 cents more than females as hand cutters, but averaged one-half cent less an hour in the Schiffli-machine shuttler group. The earnings of errand boys exceeded the average for errand girls by 4.2 cents, and floor men received 5.3 cents more than floor girls. Male learners averaged 48.3 cents, as against 44.3 cents for female learners. Little significance can be attached to this difference, however, as the two groups are made up of employees performing a variety of occupational duties.

Earnings of Office Workers

Relatively few office workers were scheduled in the course of the survey, largely because of the fact that the clerical work in the many small establishments is usually performed by the proprietor or a member of his family, for whom no wage records were kept. Practically all the office employees for whom data were obtained were females. Most of them were performing bookkeeping and stenographic work and similar duties.

The average hourly earnings of all office employees amounted to 48.2 cents. According to the following distribution, three-fifths (61.0 percent) of these employees averaged between 37.5 and 57.5 cents an hour. Over one-sixth (17.9 percent) received less than 37.5 cents, while some averaged less than 30 cents an hour. On the other hand, several averaged as much as 67.5 cents an hour and over.

	Percent
Under 30.0 cents.....	1. 2
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	. 8
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	4. 5
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	3. 7
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	7. 7
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	15. 1
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	8. 9
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	14. 2
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	10. 6
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	12. 2
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	6. 1
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	6. 5
67.5 cents and over.....	8. 5
Total.....	100. 0
Number of workers.....	246
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0. 482

Earnings of Home Workers

Relatively few establishments reported payments to home workers during the calendar year 1939. Of the 148 plants surveyed in New York City, 118 reported no home workers during 1939, 3 plants had home workers but could give no earnings data, 4 did not report on this point, 4 were not operating in 1939, and 2 reported "less than \$50" paid to home workers. One plant reported a substantial sum paid to home workers, but did not give the total wage payments for the year. The remaining 16 plants gave figures showing that the earnings of home workers equaled 18.7 percent of all wage payments made in 1939.

In northern New Jersey, of the 142 establishments surveyed, 120 reported no home workers during 1939, 2 had home workers but were unable to give the amount of wage payments made to them, 3 plants gave no information on this subject, and 2 establishments were not operating during that year. In the remaining 15 plants which reported both payments to home workers and total wage payments for 1939, the payments to home workers equaled 9.6 percent of total wage payments.

Of the 32 establishments covered in Chicago, 25 reported no home workers for 1939, while 2 companies were not operating in that year. In the 5 plants reporting total wage payments and amounts paid to home workers, the earnings of home workers amounted to 3.2 percent of total wage payments. In Philadelphia, 26 of the 30 establishments surveyed reported no home workers for 1939, while 1 plant had home workers but did not report the amount of payments made to such employees. In the 3 plants reporting wage payments to home workers, the total of such payments amounted to 71.1 percent of total wage payments in 1939.

The above figures cannot be accepted without qualification as indicating the extent of home work in the embroideries industry. It is quite likely that because of incomplete records and other reasons, some establishments failed to report the correct figures on this subject.

The establishments covered by the survey reported a total employment of 337 home workers in March 1940. Complete earnings and hours data were available for 146 of these employees.¹¹ This group included 42 hand cutters, 71 hand embroiderers, and 33 finishers, sewers, and menders. The total included 84 employees in the New York metropolitan area and 62 in Philadelphia. Virtually all of the home workers reported in the New York metropolitan area were employed by the New Jersey Schiffli establishments. In Philadelphia all home workers were employed by hand-embroidery plants. The following distribution of home workers' hourly earnings is based on the weighted data.

	Percent
Under 30.0 cents.....	2.6
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	17.2
30.1 and under 32.5 cents.....	33.4
32.5 and under 35.0 cents.....	5.8
35.0 and under 37.5 cents.....	16.8
37.5 and under 40.0 cents.....	1.9
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	8.1
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	3.2
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	4.2
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	2.9
57.5 cents and over.....	3.9
Total.....	100.0
Number of workers.....	309
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.367

Of the 191 home workers for whom complete wage data were not available, 84 were employed on hand-drawn work and 76 as hand cutters. Operations performed by the remaining employees in this group included hand sewing, hand embroidery, crochet beading, hand crocheting, mending, and hand finishing. Most of these employees were reported by establishments located in the New York metropolitan area. The total included 108 home workers in New York City, 51 in northern New Jersey, and 32 in Chicago.

Results of Mail Questionnaire

The mail questionnaire was sent to 489 plants situated outside of the four principal embroidery-manufacturing areas. Replies were received from 217 of these establishments. A majority of the returns, however, reported that the plants were out of business, were making a product not covered by the definition, employed no wage earners, or

¹¹ This is the actual number reported before application of weighting factors.

for other reasons were unable to supply usable information. After the elimination of the unusable schedules, a total of 64 remained to be tabulated. This included 5 schedules covering Schiffli-embroidery establishments, 46 schedules for pleating and stitching plants, and 12 returns from establishments making trimmings and related products. A majority of the usable replies came from the States of California, Massachusetts, and Missouri. A distribution of the hourly earnings in the 64 establishments is shown in table 9.

TABLE 9.—Percentage Distribution of Workers Reported in Mail-Questionnaire Survey of the Embroideries Industry, by Average Hourly Earnings and Product, 1940

Average hourly earnings	All products	Schiffli products ¹	Pleating, stitching, etc.	Trim-mings, etc.
Under 30.0 cents.....	2.1	—	4.2	0.6
Exactly 30.0 cents.....	8.6	21.4	3.6	6.6
30.1 and under 31.0 cents.....	.5	—	1.1	—
31.0 and under 32.0 cents.....	1.1	.4	1.5	1.1
32.0 and under 33.0 cents.....	9.1	2.0	1.1	24.9
33.0 and under 34.0 cents.....	3.4	2.5	3.6	3.7
34.0 and under 35.0 cents.....	1.4	1.2	1.5	1.4
35.0 and under 36.0 cents.....	13.5	23.1	8.6	13.7
36.0 and under 37.0 cents.....	2.3	1.6	3.4	1.4
37.0 and under 38.0 cents.....	4.6	7.0	4.0	3.7
38.0 and under 39.0 cents.....	2.9	.8	2.7	4.6
39.0 and under 40.0 cents.....	1.9	—	1.9	3.1
40.0 and under 42.5 cents.....	9.3	7.0	11.6	7.7
42.5 and under 47.5 cents.....	11.0	8.2	12.5	10.9
47.5 and under 52.5 cents.....	6.9	7.8	6.7	6.6
52.5 and under 57.5 cents.....	4.0	1.6	6.7	2.0
57.5 and under 62.5 cents.....	3.3	2.0	5.3	1.4
62.5 and under 67.5 cents.....	3.2	3.3	4.4	1.4
67.5 and under 72.5 cents.....	1.5	1.6	2.1	.6
72.5 and under 77.5 cents.....	2.3	1.6	3.4	1.4
77.5 and under 82.5 cents.....	1.9	.4	3.2	1.1
82.5 and under 87.5 cents.....	.8	—	1.7	.3
87.5 and under 92.5 cents.....	1.2	1.2	1.5	.9
92.5 and under 100.0 cents.....	.1	—	—	.3
100.0 and under 110.0 cents.....	1.6	2.5	2.3	—
110.0 and under 120.0 cents.....	.8	1.2	.8	.6
120.0 cents and over.....	.7	1.6	.6	—
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of plants.....	64	6	46	12
Number of workers.....	1,069	244	475	350
Average hourly earnings.....	\$0.460	\$0.454	\$0.490	\$0.417

¹ Includes 1 small plant manufacturing Swiss hand-loom products.

Weekly Hours and Earnings

The actual workweek averaged 33.7 hours in the principal embroidery centers at the time of the survey (table 10). The workweek averaged 30.3 hours in New York City, as compared with 33.9 in Philadelphia, 36.6 in Chicago, and 41.9 in northern New Jersey. The workweek ranged from 47.8 hours for males in northern New Jersey Schiffli plants to 27.7 hours for females in the New York City pleating and stitching establishments. It will be observed that in every product group and center, the males averaged more hours per week than did the females.

Average weekly earnings ranged from \$21.32 in New York City to \$17.12 in Chicago. Highest weekly earnings were received by the males in northern New Jersey establishments, who averaged \$26.38. This is due partly to the long hours of work in the Schiffli plants. Although the females in northern New Jersey had the longest workweek of any females in the industry, their weekly earnings were relatively low, due to the low hourly earnings rate. It is interesting to note that the highest weekly earnings for women were received in New York City, despite the fact that these employees had the shortest workweek in the industry. Average weekly hours and earnings by occupation are shown in table 8.

TABLE 10.—Average Weekly Hours and Weekly Earnings of Workers in the Embroideries Industry, by Industry Center, Product, and Sex, March 1940

Industry center	All products			Schiffli products		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Average weekly hours						
Total.....	33.7	34.7	33.0	42.1	46.4	40.5
New York City.....	30.3	31.6	29.4	42.6	47.8	40.8
Northern New Jersey.....	41.9	46.4	40.2	40.6	42.0	39.5
Philadelphia.....	33.9	37.7	32.3	39.7	41.2	39.2
Chicago.....	36.6	39.5	35.7			
Average weekly earnings						
Total.....	\$20.25	\$24.16	\$18.00	\$19.61	\$27.01	\$16.88
New York City.....	21.32	24.11	19.24	19.95	27.88	17.19
Northern New Jersey.....	19.22	26.38	16.68	18.77	21.59	16.56
Philadelphia.....	18.06	19.67	17.35	17.94	24.67	15.19
Chicago.....	17.12	22.86	15.38			

Industry center	Swiss hand-loom products			Pleating, stitching, etc.			Trimmings, etc.		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Average weekly hours									
Total.....	38.2	38.6	38.1	29.4	30.4	28.8	37.4	38.3	36.8
New York City.....	(1)		(1)	28.5	29.7	27.7	37.3	37.9	36.8
Northern New Jersey.....	38.2	38.6	38.1	38.7	44.3	37.2			
Philadelphia.....				31.7	34.5	30.8			
Chicago.....				33.8	37.3	33.1			
Average weekly earnings									
Total.....	\$15.76	\$20.77	\$13.53	\$21.33	\$24.74	\$19.28	\$17.81	\$20.54	\$15.53
New York City.....	(1)		(1)	22.17	25.28	20.00	18.11	20.37	15.97
Northern New Jersey.....	15.82	20.77	13.59	15.53	16.94	15.15			
Philadelphia.....				17.86	18.88	17.55			
Chicago.....				17.14	21.04	16.28			

¹ Data insufficient to permit the computation of an average.

² Combined to avoid disclosing data for individual establishments.

HOURLY EARNINGS OF LABOR IN LARGE AND SMALL ENTERPRISES

WORKERS in the plants of large companies have higher earnings than those in small companies, in those industries in which concentration of ownership centers control of a large share of the industry in a few companies. This is the conclusion reached by the Bureau of Labor Statistics after study of average hourly earnings in 16 industries.¹ The investigation was undertaken for the Temporary National Economic Committee and is one of several studies showing the consequences of size of enterprises on the national economic well-being.

In the meat-packing, iron and steel, and electrical-goods industries and in the manufacture of radio sets, explosives, soap, fertilizers, and chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff, workers engaged in the same kind of job had higher hourly earnings when employed by one of the largest firms in their industry than when working for a smaller company. No such relation existed in the shoe, leather, cotton goods, woolen and worsted goods, hosiery, knitted underwear and outerwear, radio parts and tubes, and furniture industries. The conclusion drawn in the report here reviewed is that size of company appears to be significant only in those industries in which a substantial share of the total business is done by a few companies and not in industries where ownership is less concentrated.

In the eight industries in which the large companies, in general, showed higher earnings than smaller enterprises, it was rarely found that the same level prevailed in all of the establishments of a corporation. Large companies frequently adapted their wage levels to local conditions, with higher hourly earnings in northern than southern plants and in large communities than in small towns. However, employees of the large firms received considerably higher pay than workers engaged by small or middle-sized companies in the same locality.

The study did not cover the reasons for the differences, but it was stated by executives of certain large firms that payment at high rates made it possible to obtain the best employees on the labor market. Higher-than-general rates may be adopted more readily where the labor cost forms a relatively low percentage of the cost of production. Another reason cited was maintenance of morale in the labor force. Higher earnings often result from piece work and production-bonus or incentive plans which are adopted to encourage efficiency. As a result, labor costs are reduced and the management shares some of

¹ United States Congress (76th, 3d Sess.). Senate. Investigation of Concentration of Power: Hourly Earnings of Employees in Large and Small Enterprises. By Jacob Perlman, assisted by Edwin M. Martin, Washington, 1940. (Monograph No. 14.)

the savings accruing from greater individual output. Another factor is the capacity of larger companies to adopt a high-wage policy.

No clear evidence was disclosed that, in general, size of establishment as distinguished from size of company contributes to higher earnings in large plants than in small.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has found a multiplicity of wage rates and hourly earnings in its studies of the American wage structure. In a single plant hourly earnings of workers engaged in the same occupation have a wide range, and variations in plants situated side by side are often considerable. To make comparisons of conditions in different industries, in different parts of the country, and in different occupations, compilation of statistics covering average hourly earnings was found to be the only practical method. Wage rates do not reflect earnings in industries or plants where employees are engaged on straight piece work or are paid under various production-bonus plans.

Although the existence of higher wages in large companies in a number of industries seems fairly clear from the report under review, no positive generalization may be made for all industries, since information on earnings is available on a company basis for only a limited number of industries. However, for a group of eight industries concerning which the necessary data are available the Bureau study shows that "higher earnings characteristically appear in large companies."

Variations by Size of Company

Among firms making radio sets, hourly earnings averaged 73 cents for the two largest producers and 53 cents for the remainder of the industry. The hourly averages were 82 cents for the three largest firms and 65 cents for the others in the explosives industry. Employees of the four largest companies in the soap industry earned an average of 76 cents an hour, as compared with 58 cents in the remaining companies. In four other industries three general earnings levels were shown, namely for the relatively large firms, those of intermediate size, and the smallest companies. The respective averages in the manufacture of electrical goods were 82, 67, and 59 cents an hour; in meat packing, 70, 64, and 56 cents; in the fertilizer industry, 37, 34, and 27 cents; and in the southern wage district of the cigarette and chewing and smoking tobacco industry, 43, 41, and 33 cents an hour. Differences were also substantial as between large and small companies in the iron and steel industry, with certain exceptions, but the data may not be shown in detail without revealing company identity.

Hourly earnings are substantially higher in the northern than in the southern region and plants of the larger companies are more frequently found in the North than in the South. Regardless of size, radio-set, electrical-goods, and soap manufacturing establishments are

situated largely in the North. Thus, geographic location is not the single nor decisive factor in determining hourly earnings. Furthermore, analysis shows that even within the northern area geographical distribution is not significant in the wage structure of these three industries. The explosives-industry plants are scattered geographically, including the three largest. In all parts of the country the employees of large firms had the highest earnings. In contrast, a number of meat-packing plants and most of the fertilizer and tobacco plants are in the South, and hourly earnings in these industries vary with size of company. The larger companies in both the North and South tend to pay the highest wages.

Average hourly earnings in the meat-packing industry are shown in table 1, by wage district, type of company, sex, and skill, as of December 1937.

TABLE 1.—Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Meat-Packing Industry, by Wage District, Type of Company, Sex, and Skill, December 1937

Wage district and type of company	Total workers	Males				Females
		All	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Unskilled	
Northern wage district.....	\$0.667	\$0.689	\$0.820	\$0.670	\$0.607	\$0.511
Big Four.....	.715	.739	.887	.717	.649	.550
Intermediate.....	.636	.659	.781	.650	.599	.492
Small.....	.597	.615	.733	.590	.525	.439
Southern wage district.....	.497	.512	.638	.493	.430	.368
Big Four.....	.580	.598	.761	.578	.501	.422
Other ¹418	.430	.514	.405	.360	.317

¹ Includes 1 plant belonging to an intermediate company in the southern wage district.

Average hourly earnings of workers in the fertilizer industry are given in table 2, by region, size of community, and size of company.

TABLE 2.—Average Hourly Earnings of Workers in Fertilizer Industry, by Region, Size of Community, and Size of Company, During Spring Months of 1938

Region and size of community	"Big Seven" companies	Intermediate companies	One-establishment companies
Northern wage district.....	\$0.574	\$0.503	\$0.438
Under 10,000 population.....	(¹)	.407	.366
10,000 and under 100,000 population.....	(¹)	.431	.390
100,000 and under 500,000 population.....	.438	.465	.472
500,000 population and over.....	.600	.557	.507
Upper southern wage district.....	.392	.355	.316
Under 10,000 population.....	(¹)	(¹)	.255
10,000 and under 100,000 population.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
100,000 and under 500,000 population.....	.409	.399	.369
500,000 population and over.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
Lower southern wage district.....	.276	.241	.208
Under 10,000 population.....	.209	.170	.178
10,000 and under 100,000 population.....	.273	.237	.226
100,000 and under 500,000 population.....	.298	.300	.268
500,000 population and over.....			

¹ Less than 3 plants; no average computed.

The conclusion drawn in the report here reviewed is that, in the industries for which data were analyzed, "it appears that geography alone cannot account for differences in wage levels associated with size of company."

As hourly earnings usually increase with size of community, there has been a tendency for plants to shift to less populous centers. There is no indication that large companies follow this practice more often than small ones. In spite of this tendency, the only metropolitan district where wages in the manufacture of radios were found to be consistently low was that of New York City. This was probably because, when the study was made, most of the plants in the district belonged to small companies. In both the meat-packing and fertilizer industries, hourly earnings varied directly with size of community, with earnings highest in the plants of large companies in each size group of communities.

Not only are average hourly earnings higher for employees of large concerns as a group but the same holds for different skills, sexes, and races. A comparison of hourly earnings on an occupational basis for large and small firms making radio sets and soap showed that in practically every instance the advantage was with persons employed by the large concerns.

Workers making the same product also earned more in plants of large companies.

Unionization in the radio-set and electrical-goods industries was found to be prevalent in both large and small companies but the differences in the extent of unionization were insufficient to explain differences in hourly earnings by size of company. No connection appeared to exist between unionization and hourly earnings in several other industries for which data were studied.

Other differences cited which tend to result in higher earnings for employees of large companies include the greater use of piece-work or production-bonus methods of wage payment and the higher proportion of overtime with extra pay in large firms.

The eight industries studied, which show the tendencies described above, have one characteristic in common, namely that a few large well-known companies are important in each case. Owing to a higher degree of mechanization by large than by small firms, the large companies, in most cases, represent a considerably larger share of total output than is indicated by the number of persons employed. This is shown in table 3.

Practically all of the large companies are multiple-establishment organizations. Their plants are scattered throughout the country. Many of them have an interest in or enjoy advantages in the production of firms in other industries. The medium-sized firms share some

of these advantages. Most of the small firms have only one establishment and many cater only to a local market, having little mechanized equipment.

TABLE 3.—Degree of Concentration in Selected Industries in 1935

Industry	Number of establishments ¹	Number of wage earners ¹	Percent of persons employed in 1935 ² —		Percent of value of product in 1935 ² —	
			In 4 largest companies	In 8 largest companies	In 4 largest companies	In 8 largest companies
Radios, radio tubes, and phonographs ³	162	48,343	37.6	45.3	27.0	38.6
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	1,435	257,660	39.7	46.5	44.4	52.3
Explosives	77	5,406	80.6	90.7	82.0	93.1
Soap	232	14,008	63.3	72.5	73.5	83.1
Meat packing, wholesale	1,160	127,477	38.7	47.3	55.6	63.5
Fertilizers	743	⁴ 20,893	31.3	45.1	25.9	41.6
Blast-furnace products and steel works and rolling-mill products	497	502,417	⁵ 46.0	⁵ 58.7	⁵ 49.3	⁵ 63.8
Cigarettes and chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff	150	36,279	⁶ 90.3	⁶ 90.2	⁶ 89.7	⁶ 99.4

¹ Based on Census of Manufactures, 1937.

² See National Resources Committee, *Structure of the American Economy*. Appendix 7, table I, pp. 239-247.

³ No separate figures are available for radio sets, but it is estimated that plants making such products represent about one-half of the total industry in terms of wage earners.

⁴ Due to extreme seasonality, this figure is not indicative of the size of the industry, which reported as many as 36,782 wage earners at the height of the season in April 1937.

⁵ These figures cover steel-works and rolling-mill products only.

⁶ These figures cover cigarettes only.

Variations by Size of Establishment

Having found that a correlation existed between size of company and the amount of average hourly earnings, further study was undertaken to learn whether size of individual establishment had the same effect. The results of this investigation were negative, however, and it was concluded that the explanation lay in the absence, in a single establishment, of economies that are possible when an individual firm has more than one plant. As stated in the report here reviewed: "The economies of operation possible for a large company, and particularly an integrated company with widespread facilities for obtaining raw materials, for shipping and for selling as well as for manufacturing in any one of a number of plants, are of a different order from those associated solely with the size of the operations in a single plant."

It appeared, on first examination of data collected covering many industries, that hourly earnings were higher in large than in small plants. Analysis of detailed information for particular industries, by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, however, showed that, with the exception of bituminous-coal mining, there was no clear relationship between size of plant and the level of average hourly earnings. For example, certain large plants which were paying higher wages than small plants were making such payments because of location in the North, in large cities, or for special reasons associated with a higher wage level.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, OCTOBER 1940 ¹

BUILDING-PERMIT valuations for all classes of building construction in October were almost double the total for October 1939. The increase of 97.6 percent was shared by all city-size groups and ranged from a 40.2 percent gain in cities with a population of 1,000 and under 2,500 to one of 153.5 percent in the group of cities with a population of 25,000 and under 50,000. New residential construction increased 58.6 percent over October 1939 and new nonresidential construction showed a gain of 223.9 percent. In cities with a population of 5,000 and under 10,000 the nonresidential increase was 557.4 percent. Permit valuations of additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures were 0.2 percent higher than in the corresponding month in 1939.

Permit valuations for October showed sizable gains over September as well as over October 1939. All classes of construction combined increased 52.9 percent over the preceding month. Permit valuations of new residential construction were up 16.9 percent and nonresidential valuations increased 147.7 percent. Additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures decreased 5.8 percent as compared with the preceding month.

Comparison of October 1940 with September 1940 and October 1939

A summary of building construction in 2,098 identical cities in October 1940, with percentage changes from September 1940 and October 1939, is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,098 Identical Cities, October 1940*

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	October 1940	Percentage change from—		October 1940	Percentage change from—	
		September 1940	October 1939		September 1940	October 1939
All construction.....	80, 942	+3. 6	+10. 0	\$335, 684, 227	+52. 9	+97. 6
New residential.....	24, 335	+4. 6	+25. 9	143, 623, 337	+16. 9	+58. 6
New nonresidential.....	16, 095	+12. 5	+12. 7	163, 007, 526	+147. 7	+223. 9
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	40, 512	— . 1	+1. 4	29, 053, 364	— 5. 8	+ . 2

¹ More detailed information by geographic division and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, October 1940," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of permit valuations and the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings in 2,098 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for October 1940 with percentage changes from September 1940 and October 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,098 Identical Cities, by Type of Dwelling, October 1940*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of house-keeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	October 1940	Percentage change from—		October 1940	Percentage change from—	
		September 1940	October 1939		September 1940	October 1939
All types.....	\$142, 943, 402	+17. 1	+61. 6	39, 413	+17. 7	+67. 9
1-family.....	88, 177, 416	+4. 9	+22. 3	21, 874	+3. 9	+20. 1
2-family ¹	5, 671, 449	+25. 0	+56. 3	2, 171	+17. 5	+60. 7
Multifamily ²	49, 094, 537	+46. 9	+286. 7	15, 368	+45. 1	+203. 7

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 10 Months, 1939 and 1940

Cumulative totals for the first 10 months of 1940 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction, by Class of Construction in Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, First 10 Months, 1939 and 1940*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 10 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939	
All construction.....	\$2, 004, 900, 355	\$1, 754, 144, 195	+14. 3
New residential.....	1, 080, 603, 566	938, 550, 732	+15. 1
New nonresidential.....	633, 343, 258	517, 379, 250	+22. 4
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	290, 953, 531	298, 214, 213	-2. 4

Table 4 presents the permit valuation and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over for the first 10 months of 1939 and 1940.

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pamphlet

TABLE 4.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units by Type of Dwelling, First 10 Months, 1939 and 1940, by Type of Dwelling*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings, first 10 months of—		Percentage change	Number of family-dwelling units, first 10 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939		1940	1939	
All types.....	\$1,062,757,606	\$925,743,470	+14.8	295,339	252,600	+16.9
1-family.....	751,591,258	665,246,026	+13.0	190,266	171,357	+11.0
2-family ¹	39,402,823	38,503,979	+2.3	15,478	13,876	+11.6
Multifamily ²	271,763,525	221,993,465	+22.4	89,595	67,367	+33.0

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.*Analysis by Size of City, October 1940*

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in October 1940 with percentage changes from September 1940 and October 1939, by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—*Permit Valuation of Various Classes of Building Construction in 2,098 Identical Cities, by Size of City, October 1940*

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings		
		Permit valuation, October 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, October 1940	Percentage change from—	
			Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939		Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939
Total, all reporting cities.....	2, 098	\$335, 684, 227	+52. 9	+97. 6	\$143, 623, 337	+16. 9	+58. 6
500,000 and over.....	14	87, 417, 368	+33. 9	+53. 6	45, 353, 784	+6. 6	+49. 3
100,000 and under 500,000.....	79	91, 596, 124	+75. 3	+142. 1	36, 886, 491	+57. 6	+130. 2
50,000 and under 100,000.....	94	32, 362, 961	+46. 2	+120. 1	10, 044, 668	-8. 4	+26. 5
25,000 and under 50,000.....	165	43, 292, 783	+106. 2	+153. 5	12, 860, 498	+17. 5	+35. 5
10,000 and under 25,000.....	429	41, 452, 824	+25. 4	+77. 2	19, 733, 814	+13. 2	+45. 6
5,000 and under 10,000.....	377	26, 489, 969	+82. 1	+143. 4	9, 683, 093	-1. 8	+35. 5
2,500 and under 5,000.....	457	8, 194, 261	+12. 1	+46. 6	5, 251, 620	+8. 6	+41. 3
1,000 and under 2,500.....	483	4, 877, 937	+25. 6	+40. 2	3, 809, 369	+35. 1	+67. 2

Size of city	New nonresidential build-ings			Additions, alterations, and repairs			Popula-tion (census of 1930)
	Permit valuation, October 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, October 1940	Percentage change from—		
		Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939		Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939	
Total, all reporting cities.....	\$163, 007, 526	+147. 7	+223. 9	\$29, 053, 364	-5. 8	+0. 2	60, 161, 302
500,000 and over.....	32, 636, 981	+160. 7	+96. 9	9, 426, 603	-7. 8	-5. 3	21, 449, 833
100,000 and under 500,000.....	47, 561, 046	+119. 9	+240. 2	7, 148, 587	-1. 0	-8. 7	15, 017, 680
50,000 and under 100,000.....	19, 209, 707	+135. 4	+404. 4	3, 108, 586	+3. 5	+5. 2	6, 255, 810
25,000 and under 50,000.....	27, 290, 215	+326. 0	+475. 4	3, 142, 070	-13. 8	+10. 5	5, 782, 789
10,000 and under 25,000.....	18, 239, 687	+51. 9	+166. 3	3, 479, 323	-3. 7	+16. 5	6, 604, 716
5,000 and under 10,000.....	15, 345, 952	+425. 4	+557. 4	1, 460, 924	-17. 3	+4. 3	2, 643, 599
2,500 and under 5,000.....	2, 054, 378	+36. 0	+73. 7	888, 263	-7. 8	+28. 5	1, 631, 901
1,000 and under 2,500.....	660, 560	+1. 4	-22. 0	399, 008	-1. 2	+16. 0	774, 754

The permit valuation and number of new dwelling units provided, by type of dwelling and size of city, in the 2,098 identical cities reporting for September and October 1940, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Number and Permit Valuation of New Dwelling Units in 2,098 Identical Cities, by Size of City and Type of Dwelling, September 1940*

Size of city	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	October 1940	September 1940	Percentage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings ¹		Multifamily dwellings ²	
				October 1940	September 1940	October 1940	September 1940	October 1940	September 1940	October 1940	September 1940
Total, all reporting cities.....	\$142,943,402	\$122,019,676	+17.1	39,413	33,497	21,874	21,060	2,171	1,848	15,368	10,589
500,000 and over.....	45,046,984	42,463,838	+6.1	12,168	11,464	4,688	4,741	866	565	6,614	6,158
100,000 and under 500,000.....	36,858,501	23,274,909	+58.4	11,134	6,430	4,695	4,414	521	457	5,918	1,550
50,000 and under 100,000.....	9,978,668	10,955,066	-8.9	2,606	3,086	2,006	1,970	221	224	469	892
25,000 and under 50,000.....	12,741,553	10,871,462	+17.2	3,516	3,236	2,438	2,323	231	202	847	711
10,000 and under 25,000.....	19,706,814	17,303,322	+13.9	5,218	4,654	3,938	3,957	196	191	1,084	506
5,000 and under 10,000.....	9,593,193	9,495,811	+1.0	2,451	2,632	1,984	1,823	69	117	398	692
2,500 and under 5,000.....	5,220,320	4,837,784	+7.9	1,283	1,275	1,226	1,155	43	64	14	56
1,000 and under 2,500.....	3,797,369	2,817,484	+34.8	947	720	899	677	24	28	24	15

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,098 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collect and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For October 1940 the value of these buildings amounted to \$143,041,000, for September 1940 to \$48,318,000, and for October 1939 to \$12,123,000.

Construction From Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during October 1940, September 1940, and October 1939 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Construction Projects Financed from Federal Funds, September 1939*¹

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	October 1940	September 1940 ²	October 1939 ¹
Total.....	\$391, 192, 440	\$2, 828, 456, 626	\$170, 827, 063
Public Works Administration:			
Federal.....	18, 055	102, 098	808, 164
Non-Federal:			
N. I. R. A.....	81, 618	17, 050	62, 350
E. R. A. A.....	0	1, 087, 725	2, 859, 514
P. W. A. A., 1938.....	0	1, 840, 543	21, 228, 616
Federal agency projects under the WPA.....	400, 564	279, 912	6, 107, 091
Regular Federal appropriations.....	374, 173, 519	2, 801, 824, 248	122, 541, 075
United States Housing Authority.....	16, 518, 684	23, 304, 150	17, 220, 253

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.

² Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for October 1940, September 1940, and October 1939 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
October 1940.....	\$2, 278, 033	\$10, 125, 637
September 1940.....	2, 534, 422	16, 627, 123
October 1939.....	2, 288, 967	3, 914, 360

PERMIT FEES FOR RESIDENTIAL CONSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1940¹

RECORDS of building permits are one of the most important indicators of the volume and nature of residential construction, but there is little general knowledge of the nature of the permits required by the various cities throughout the country. This article presents the results of a survey made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics to determine the basis upon which fee charges are made, and is mainly a preliminary statistical account of the various types of fees collected when permits for residential construction are issued, by cities with a population of 10,000 or over.² The survey was limited to residential construction, in view of the fact that many cities have extremely complex schedules by which the fees for nonresidential construction are determined, and reports concerning such fees are incomplete.

For purposes of tabulation and analysis the cities were classified, according to their basis for charging fees, into groups as follows: (1) No fees charged; (2) flat fee; (3) fees based upon valuation of the construction; (4) fees based upon cubic contents; and (5) fees based upon floor space. A further group was established for those cities which did not fall into any of the above classifications.

Information was received from 854 of the 982 cities enumerated in the 1930 census as having 10,000 or more population. The survey revealed that 155 or 18 percent of the 854 reporting cities waive the collection of a building-permit fee. A flat fee regardless of the cost or size of the structure is charged in over 12 percent of the cities. However, the majority of the cities (58 percent) base their permit fees on the value of construction. Cubic content serves as the basis for fixing fees in 5 percent and floor space in 3 percent of the cities. About 4 percent of the reporting cities were not readily classifiable into these general categories.

Regionally, there were wide variations in the types of fees required. In New England, 48 cities (almost 40 percent of the 122 cities reporting from that area) were found to require no payment of fees, and all but 2 of the remainder had either a flat fee or a fee based on valuation. By contrast, 62 of the 64 Pacific Coast cities reported fees based on valuation and only one city issued free permits. Cubic content and floor space of buildings were most frequently employed as a basis

¹ A more detailed report on this subject is given in a separate pamphlet (Serial No. R. 1188), copies of which will be furnished upon request.

² Many cities make charges in addition to permit fees in connection with residential building. Only Permit fees are discussed in this article.

for calculating fees in the cities of the East North Central States (Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and Wisconsin). In Wisconsin, more than half the cities having a population of 10,000 or more provided for fees based on the cubic contents of the proposed structures.

Study of the fees levied indicates clearly that these charges are not a revenue-raising device. In many cases the permit charge in connection with residential building is barely sufficient to pay for the manifold services rendered for the protection of the builder. Before an application for a building permit is approved, the office of the building inspector usually examines all plans and specifications to determine that the building will be safe, sanitary, and built to last, and that it will not lower the tone of the neighborhood in which it is constructed. An example of the function of the office is described in the following quotation from part I of the building code of the city of Louisville, Ky.:

SECTION 3. *Inspector of buildings, general powers, appointments, etc.*—(a) The inspector of buildings shall be the head of the Division of Buildings and of all divisions and employees of same. * * *

(c) The Division of Buildings shall be charged with the survey and inspection of buildings and with the enforcement of this ordinance, and of all laws and ordinances relating to the erection, construction, alteration, addition to, repairs of, inspection, wrecking, razing, moving and safety of buildings, structures, signs, elevators, boilers, heating and ventilating apparatus, gas-fitting, house drainage and plumbing, electric wiring, fire escape and other protective devices, and shall pass upon all questions relating to the strength and durability of buildings, structures and materials, and examine and approve or disapprove, all plans and specifications therefor before a permit shall be issued, and shall promptly acknowledge the receipt of all official communications, notices and reports.

(d) The Division of Buildings shall cause the prosecution of any person violating any of the building regulations of the city of Louisville.

(e) The Division of Buildings shall keep proper record showing the location, value and character of every building, structure or other work for which a certificate or permit is issued, and a copy of every report of inspection of a building, structure or work with the name of the inspector making the inspection and the date thereof.

Type of Fees Charged, by Geographic Location and Size of City

From table 1, in which the cities are classified according to geographic division, State, and type of fee, it is apparent from the distribution within each State that as a rule the State imposes upon the municipality little or no restriction upon its choice of fee.

Reports were received from 13 cities³ with a population of over 500,000. None of these cities issued free building permits, or charged flat rates. Seven based their fees on the valuation of construction and the remainder employed fees based on space.

³ Washington, D. C., was included in this group. New York City was excluded from the study because of the complexity of the types of fees charged in connection with building construction.

TABLE 1.—Number of Cities Reporting, by Type of Building-Permit Fee and State

State	Number of cities with specified type of fee												
	Total reporting cities	No fee	Flat fee	Valuation basis			Cubic-content basis			Floor-space basis			Miscellaneous
				Proportionate, without minimum	Proportionate, with minimum	Sliding scale	Proportionate, without minimum	Proportionate, with minimum	Sliding scale	Proportionate, without minimum	Proportionate, with minimum	Sliding scale	
United States.....	854	155	97	65	98	335	5	32	8	9	15	2	33
New England.....	122	48	22	6	13	31							2
Connecticut.....	31	2	2	4	5	17							1
Maine.....	9	2	3		1	3							
Massachusetts.....	63	36	15	1	5	5							1
New Hampshire.....	6	6											
Rhode Island.....	11	2	1	1	1	6							
Vermont.....	2		1		1								
Middle Atlantic.....	182	36	22	17	25	66		2	2	2	5	1	4
New Jersey.....	56		3	8	10	31				2	2		
New York ¹	60	27	4	3	5	17		2	2				
Pennsylvania.....	66	9	15	6	10	18					3	1	4
East North Central.....	192	23	28	14	22	49	2	29	3	2	8		12
Illinois.....	48	3	2	6	6	15	1	8	2	1	1		3
Indiana.....	30	5	7	2	5	4	1	2					4
Michigan.....	38	9	3	3	7	15		1					
Ohio.....	52	5	15	3	3	10		5	1	1	6		3
Wisconsin.....	24	1	1		1	5		13			1		2
West North Central.....	79	13	10	8	14	29	2	1	2				
Iowa.....	18	4	1	1		10			2				
Kansas.....	17	2	2	2	5	6							
Minnesota.....	13	5	2	1		3	1	1					
Missouri.....	15			2	8	5							
Nebraska.....	7	1	2	1	1	2							
North Dakota.....	3		1			1	1						
South Dakota.....	6	1	2	1		2							
South Atlantic.....	81	10	5	5	10	34				1	1	1	14
Delaware.....	1					1							
District of Columbia.....	1									1			
Florida.....	14	2		2	4	6							
Georgia.....	14	3	1		4	5							1
Maryland.....	5			1		4							
North Carolina.....	17		1			6							10
South Carolina.....	9		2			4							3
Virginia.....	11	2	1		2	4					1	1	
West Virginia.....	9	3		2		4							
East South Central.....	44	12	3	2	6	19	1		1				
Alabama.....	12		2		5	5							
Kentucky.....	12	6		1		4			1				
Mississippi.....	12	6	1	1		4							
Tennessee.....	8				1	6	1						
West South Central.....	64	12	5	4	6	32				3	1		1
Arkansas.....	8	1		1	1	3				1			1
Louisiana.....	7	1			1	4				1			
Oklahoma.....	14	2				12							
Texas.....	35	8	5	3	4	13				1	1		
Mountain.....	26		2	4	1	19							
Arizona.....	2					2							
Colorado.....	8		1	1	1	5							
Idaho.....	2			1		1							
Montana.....	6			1		5							
Nevada.....	1					1							
New Mexico.....	3		1	1		1							
Utah.....	2					2							
Wyoming.....	2					2							
Pacific.....	64	1		5	1	56				1			
California.....	47	1		5		41							
Oregon.....	5				1	4							
Washington.....	12					11				1			

¹ New York City was excluded because of the complexity of the types of fees charged in connection with building construction.

Table 2 shows the cities and the types of building-permit fees according to city-size groups.

TABLE 2.—*Number of Cities Reporting, by Type of Building-Permit Fee and Size of City*

Type of building-permit fee	Total cities reporting	Number of cities in each population group reporting specified permit practice				
		500,000 population and over	100,000 and under 500,000 population	50,000 and under 100,000 population	25,000 and under 50,000 population	10,000 and under 25,000 population
All cities reporting.....	854	¹ 13	78	95	170	498
No fee.....	155		8	10	30	107
Flat fee.....	97		2	4	14	77
Valuation basis:						
Proportionate, without minimum.....	65	1	3	11	13	37
Proportionate, with minimum.....	98	1	7	7	19	64
Sliding scale.....	335	5	39	49	73	169
Cubic-content basis:						
Proportionate, without minimum.....	5		1		2	2
Proportionate, with minimum.....	32	1	5	7	6	13
Sliding scale.....	8	1	5	1		1
Floor-space basis:						
Proportionate, without minimum.....	9	1	4	1	1	2
Proportionate, with minimum.....	15	2	2	2	4	5
Sliding scale.....	2		1			1
Miscellaneous.....	33	1	1	3	8	20

¹ Washington, D. C., was included in this group. New York City was excluded from the study because of the complexity of the types of fees charged in connection with building construction.

Smaller cities are more likely than the larger cities to issue free permits. The survey showed that about a fifth of the cities having less than 50,000 population issued free permits, while the corresponding proportion for the cities having 50,000 or more was about a tenth.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN OCTOBER 1940¹

DURING October sharp advances in agricultural commodities, particularly grains, hides, cattle feed, and industrial materials such as coal, lumber, rubber, and nonferrous metals were largely responsible for an increase of 0.9 percent in the Bureau of Labor Statistics' index of wholesale commodity prices. The all-commodity index rose to 78.7 percent of the 1926 average, the highest level reached since February. Notwithstanding the recent upturn, wholesale commodity prices are nearly 1 percent below October a year ago when the index was at the high point following the outbreak of war.

Commodity prices in wholesale markets generally were higher, as each of the 10 groups, except foods, advanced. Hides and leather products, metals and metal products, and building materials rose 2 percent; textile products, 1.5 percent; and farm products, fuel and lighting materials, chemicals and allied products, housefurnishing goods, and miscellaneous commodities, less than 1 percent. The foods group declined 0.6 percent.

Most group indexes are below their levels of October 1939. The decreases over the year period range from about 1 percent for farm products, chemicals and allied products, and miscellaneous commodities to 4 percent for hides and leather products. Building materials, on the other hand, are nearly 5½ percent higher than they were a year ago and metals and metal products are over 1½ percent higher.

The index for the semimanufactured commodities group rose 2.3 percent, raw materials advanced 1.3 percent, and manufactured commodities were 0.7 percent above the September level. Non-agricultural commodity prices as measured by the index for "All commodities other than farm products" rose 1.1 percent and industrial commodity prices increased 1.5 percent according to the index for "All commodities other than farm products and foods."

In the farm products group, which advanced 0.3 percent, a gain of 6.0 percent in prices of grains was partially offset by a decline of 2.5 percent for livestock and poultry. During September and October grain prices recovered 10 percent of the 23 percent loss recorded between the year's high (April) and the low (August). Quotations were

¹ More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

higher for all grains, steers, sheep, wool, tobacco, hops, eggs, fresh milk at Chicago, citrus fruits, and onions. Lower prices were reported for calves, cows, hogs, live poultry, hay, peanuts, cotton, and potatoes.

Marked declines in prices for meats, together with seasonal declines for fruits and vegetables, largely accounted for the decline of 0.6 percent in the foods group index. Prices were lower for rice, fresh and dried fruits and vegetables, fresh beef and pork, veal, mutton, dressed poultry, lard, and certain vegetable oils. Dairy products and cereal products advanced during the month. Prices were higher for butter, cheese, milk, flour, corn meal, oatmeal, canned fruits, cured pork, coffee, canned salmon, raw sugar, and olive oil.

In October, the building materials group index rose to the highest point since early in 1927, 97.8 percent of the 1926 level. Continued advances in prices of lumber together with higher prices for common building brick, cement, and paint materials such as red lead, zinc oxide, litharge, tung oil, rosin, and turpentine, accounted for the advance. Prices were somewhat lower for shellac, linseed oil, copal gum, prepared roofing, sand, and gravel.

Average prices for metals and metal products advanced 2 percent in October to the peak since late in 1929. Sharp advances in prices for ingot copper, pig lead, pig tin, pig zinc, and manufactured products of these metals such as pipe, rods, sheets, and wire, and higher prices for scrap steel, bolts, and the 1941 models of automobiles were responsible for the advance. Quicksilver prices in October were below the September average.

An increase of nearly 12 percent in hides and skin prices together with slightly higher prices for leather accounted for the advance of 2.1 percent in the hides and leather products group index. After registering a decline of nearly 25 percent from January to August, prices of hides and skins rose almost 22 percent from August to October.

Rising prices for cotton textiles, particularly tire fabrics, yarns, osnaburg, print cloth, drilling, denim, and broadcloth; worsted yarns and woolen and worsted yard goods; burlap, hemp, cotton rope and twine; silk; and work clothing caused the textile products group index to increase 1.5 percent during October. Sisal and jute declined sharply and lower prices were also reported for manila rope.

The minor advance in the chemicals and allied products group resulted from higher prices for alcohol, copper sulphate, tin tetrachloride, and tankage. Castor oil, ergot, iodine, and peroxide of hydrogen declined sharply.

Advancing prices for coal, coke, and natural gasoline and fuel oil from Oklahoma fields caused the fuel and lighting materials group index to rise 0.8 percent.

The index for the housefurnishing goods group rose slightly because of higher prices for woolen blankets, sheets, and pillow cases.

In the miscellaneous commodities group, cattle feed prices rose 5.5 percent. Crude rubber advanced 4.5 percent and a 17 percent increase was reported in the price for paraffin wax.

Index numbers for the groups and subgroups of commodities for September and October 1940 and October 1939 and the percentage changes from a month ago and a year ago are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, October 1940, With Comparisons for September 1940 and October 1939*

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	October 1940	September 1940	Change from a month ago	October 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
All commodities.....	78.7	78.0	+0.9	79.4	-0.9
Farm products.....	66.4	66.2	+ .3	67.1	-1.0
Grains.....	65.4	61.7	+6.0	61.6	+6.2
Livestock and poultry.....	70.6	72.4	-2.5	70.5	+ .1
Other farm products.....	63.8	63.2	+ .9	66.1	-3.5
Foods.....	71.1	71.5	- .6	73.3	-3.0
Dairy products.....	77.3	75.1	+2.9	78.9	-2.0
Cereal products.....	77.0	76.0	+1.3	78.0	-1.3
Fruits and vegetables.....	58.9	60.8	-3.1	60.2	-2.2
Meats.....	75.6	79.0	-4.3	74.9	+ .9
Other foods.....	63.4	62.6	+1.3	70.2	-9.7
Hides and leather products.....	100.4	98.3	+2.1	104.6	-4.0
Shoes.....	107.0	107.0	0	105.7	+1.2
Hides and skins.....	93.8	84.0	+11.7	112.4	-16.5
Leather.....	90.9	88.9	+2.2	97.8	-7.1
Other leather products.....	99.7	99.7	0	99.3	+ .4
Textile products.....	73.6	72.5	+1.5	75.5	-2.5
Clothing.....	85.7	85.6	+ .1	83.2	+3.0
Cotton goods.....	71.5	69.2	+3.3	74.3	-3.8
Hosiery and underwear.....	61.4	61.4	0	63.5	-3.3
Rayon.....	29.5	29.5	0	29.5	0
Silk.....	44.7	42.8	+4.4	54.3	-17.7
Woolen and worsted goods.....	86.3	84.2	+2.5	91.3	-5.5
Other textile products.....	72.1	71.6	+ .7	78.3	-7.9
Fuel and lighting materials.....	71.6	71.0	+ .8	73.9	-3.1
Anthracite.....	80.7	79.6	+1.4	75.3	+7.2
Bituminous coal.....	100.4	96.8	+3.7	98.2	+2.2
Coke.....	109.7	109.6	+ .1	108.0	+1.6
Electricity.....	(1)	73.5	---	75.4	---
Gas.....	82.4	84.8	-2.8	84.4	-2.4
Petroleum and products.....	49.0	48.9	+ .2	54.0	-9.3
Metals and metal products.....	97.3	95.4	+2.0	95.8	+1.6
Agricultural implements.....	92.5	92.4	+ .1	93.4	-1.0
Farm machinery.....	93.8	93.7	+ .1	94.6	-.8
Iron and steel.....	94.9	94.9	0	96.0	-1.1
Motor vehicles ²	100.1	96.1	+4.2	93.9	+6.6
Nonferrous metals.....	83.6	80.7	+3.6	85.3	-2.0
Plumbing and heating.....	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5
Building materials.....	97.8	³ 95.6	+2.3	92.8	+5.4
Brick and tile.....	90.2	90.2	0	91.5	-1.4
Cement.....	90.7	90.6	+ .1	91.3	-.7
Lumber.....	⁴ 114.4	⁴ 107.1	+6.8	⁴ 99.6	+14.9
Paint and paint materials.....	84.8	84.1	+ .8	85.7	-1.1
Plumbing and heating.....	80.5	80.5	0	79.3	+1.5
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	93.8	93.5	+ .3	91.9	+2.1

¹ Data not yet available.

² Preliminary revision.

³ Revised.

⁴ New series. For explanation see Wholesale Prices pamphlet for October 1940.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups and Subgroups of Commodities, October 1940, With Comparisons for September 1940 and October 1939—Continued

Group and subgroup	October 1940	September 1940	Change from a month ago	October 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
Chemicals and allied products	76.9	76.8	+0.1	77.6	-0.9
Chemicals.....	85.0	84.8	+0.2	85.2	-0.2
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	95.8	96.0	-0.2	79.7	+20.2
Fertilizer materials.....	68.1	68.1	0	68.6	-0.7
Mixed fertilizers.....	74.2	74.2	0	72.5	+2.3
Oils and fats.....	39.8	39.9	-0.3	57.2	-30.4
Housefurnishing goods	88.6	88.5	+0.1	87.8	+0.9
Furnishings.....	95.0	94.8	+0.2	93.7	+1.4
Furniture.....	81.8	81.8	0	81.7	+0.1
Miscellaneous	76.9	76.5	+0.5	77.6	-0.9
Automobile tires and tubes.....	58.8	58.8	0	60.5	-2.8
Cattle feed.....	80.1	75.9	+5.5	82.9	-3.4
Paper and pulp.....	93.2	93.2	0	86.3	+8.0
Rubber, crude.....	41.6	39.8	+1.5	42.7	-2.6
Other miscellaneous.....	82.7	82.6	+0.1	85.4	-3.2
Raw materials	71.4	70.5	+1.3	72.3	-1.2
Semimanufactured articles	79.4	77.6	+2.3	83.1	-4.5
Manufactured products	82.1	81.5	+0.7	82.3	-0.2
All commodities other than farm products	81.3	80.4	+1.1	82.0	-0.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	83.5	82.3	+1.5	83.8	-0.4

Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to October 1940

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1939, inclusive, and by months from October 1939 to October 1940, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	Housefurnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929.....	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932.....	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933.....	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936.....	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937.....	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938.....	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939.....	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
By months:											
1939:											
October.....	67.1	73.3	104.6	75.5	73.9	95.8	92.8	77.6	87.8	77.6	79.4
November.....	67.3	72.3	104.0	76.4	74.1	96.0	93.0	77.4	88.4	77.0	79.2
December.....	67.6	71.9	103.7	78.0	72.8	96.0	93.0	77.7	88.5	77.4	79.2
1940:											
January.....	69.1	71.7	103.6	77.9	72.7	95.8	93.4	77.7	87.9	77.7	79.4
February.....	68.7	71.1	102.4	75.4	72.4	95.3	93.2	77.5	88.0	77.3	78.7
March.....	67.9	70.2	101.8	74.0	72.2	95.5	93.3	77.0	88.0	76.9	78.4
April.....	69.4	71.6	101.8	72.9	71.8	94.5	92.5	76.8	88.4	77.7	78.6
May.....	67.9	71.4	101.3	72.9	71.7	94.5	92.5	76.7	88.5	77.7	78.4
June.....	66.2	70.3	99.2	72.6	71.4	94.7	92.4	76.1	88.5	77.3	77.5
July.....	66.5	70.3	99.0	72.4	71.1	95.1	92.5	77.0	88.5	77.7	77.7
August.....	65.6	70.1	96.9	72.3	71.1	94.9	93.3	76.7	88.5	76.7	77.4
September.....	66.2	71.5	98.3	72.5	71.0	95.4	95.6	76.8	88.5	76.5	78.0
October.....	66.4	71.1	100.4	73.6	71.6	97.3	97.8	76.9	88.6	76.9	78.7

1 Revised.

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semimanufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was given in Serial No. R. 1069—Wholesale Prices, December and Year 1939.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, by Special Groups of Commodities
[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Con.					
1926.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1940:					
1929.....	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	January.....	73.8	81.7	81.7	81.5	83.9
1932.....	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	February.....	72.7	79.9	81.4	80.8	83.2
1933.....	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	March.....	72.0	79.7	81.1	80.5	82.9
						April.....	73.0	78.2	81.2	80.5	82.5
1936.....	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	May.....	72.0	78.3	81.3	80.5	82.5
1937.....	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	June.....	70.7	77.9	80.5	79.8	82.2
1938.....	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	July.....	70.7	77.8	80.9	80.0	82.3
1939.....	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	August.....	69.8	77.0	81.0	79.9	82.0
By months:						September.....	70.5	77.6	81.5	80.4	82.3
1939:						October.....	71.4	79.4	82.1	81.3	83.5
October.....	72.3	83.1	82.3	82.0	83.8						
November.....	72.4	82.1	82.0	81.6	84.0						
December.....	73.3	82.0	81.7	81.6	83.9						

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during September and October are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, September and October 1940

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Oct. 26	Oct. 19	Oct. 12	Oct. 5	Sept. 28	Sept. 21	Sept. 14	Sept. 7
All commodities.....	78.6	78.4	78.1	77.8	77.7	77.7	77.9	78.0
Farm products.....	67.0	66.7	66.1	65.5	65.7	65.7	66.8	67.6
Foods.....	70.8	71.0	71.0	70.7	70.8	71.1	71.3	71.6
Hides and leather products.....	101.9	100.7	100.3	99.9	99.3	99.0	98.6	97.8
Textile products.....	73.6	73.5	72.6	72.5	72.1	72.0	71.9	71.8
Fuel and lighting materials.....	72.2	72.3	72.3	72.3	71.8	71.9	71.8	71.8
Metals and metal products.....	97.4	97.4	96.4	95.8	95.7	95.3	95.3	95.0
Building materials ¹	97.6	97.3	97.5	96.5	95.8	95.2	95.0	94.5
Chemicals and allied products.....	77.0	76.9	76.8	76.8	76.7	76.8	76.8	76.8
Housefurnishing goods.....	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.1	90.0	90.0	90.0	90.0
Miscellaneous.....	77.0	76.8	76.4	76.4	76.1	76.3	76.3	76.4
Raw materials.....	71.5	71.3	70.8	70.4	70.0	70.1	70.5	70.9
Semimanufactured articles.....	79.7	79.4	78.8	78.6	78.3	77.5	77.4	76.8
Manufactured products.....	82.1	82.1	81.8	81.6	81.6	81.7	81.8	81.8
All commodities other than farm products.....	81.1	81.0	80.7	80.5	80.4	80.4	80.3	80.3
All commodities other than farm products and foods.....	83.7	83.5	83.1	82.9	82.6	82.5	82.5	82.3

¹ Revised.

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN OCTOBER 1940

RETAIL costs of food in large cities declined by 1 percent between September 17 and October 15 following an increase of the same amount during the previous month. A reduction in prices of meats, a general decline of a seasonal nature for fruits and vegetables, together with lower prices for bread in the New England and New York areas, were responsible for this decline. The general decrease was offset to some extent by seasonally higher prices for butter and eggs, reported from all sections of the country.

One of the more significant changes was a decline in meat prices of 3 percent to the same level of 2 months ago. Preliminary reports indicate that reductions in the retail prices of beef and fresh pork have been continuing since October 15, following the general downward movement in wholesale market prices.

The Bureau's index of food costs on October 15, 1940, stood at 96.2 percent of the 1935-39 average, 1.4 percent lower than in October 1939. The largest decreases shown for the major commodity groups over the year period were 8 percent for fresh fruits and vegetables, 10 percent for fats and oils, and 18 percent for sugar. Meats were somewhat more than 2 percent higher than a year earlier.

DETAILS BY COMMODITY GROUPS

Decreases between September and October of 1 cent per loaf for white bread in the New England and New York cities were responsible for a decline of 1.5 percent in the prices of cereals and bakery products. Prices of white bread had advanced during the early part of the year in most of the cities in which these decreases occurred. Prices for whole wheat and rye bread also declined. Flour prices, however, advanced slightly, reversing the downward trend which has continued since last May. The average price of flour was still 3.6 percent below the level of a year ago. No change for the month was reported for other foods in the group, except soda crackers which decreased slightly.

Retail prices of nearly all meats declined between September and October, and the group as a whole reached the same level as on August

13, 1940. Prices of beef were 3.0 percent lower in October, reversing the steady advance which had been going on since last March. The price of round steak was 5 percent lower than in mid-September, a greater reduction than is usual for the season. Prices of rib and chuck roast were 2 percent and 1 percent lower, respectively, for the month. Beef was about 7 percent higher than in October 1939. Prices of pork chops and ham decreased 7.2 percent and 3.5 percent between September and October as seasonally larger supplies came on to the market. Retail prices of sliced bacon and salt pork followed the wholesale price movement and, contrary to the usual trend at this time of the year, continued to advance for the fourth consecutive month in response to greater consumer demand. They are now at the highest level for the year. The average price for all types of pork priced by the Bureau was from 4 to 9 percent lower in October 1940 than a year earlier. Of the other meats for which prices are secured, lamb and roasting chickens declined seasonally during the month and prices of fresh and frozen fish rose 1 percent, while canned salmon prices remained unchanged.

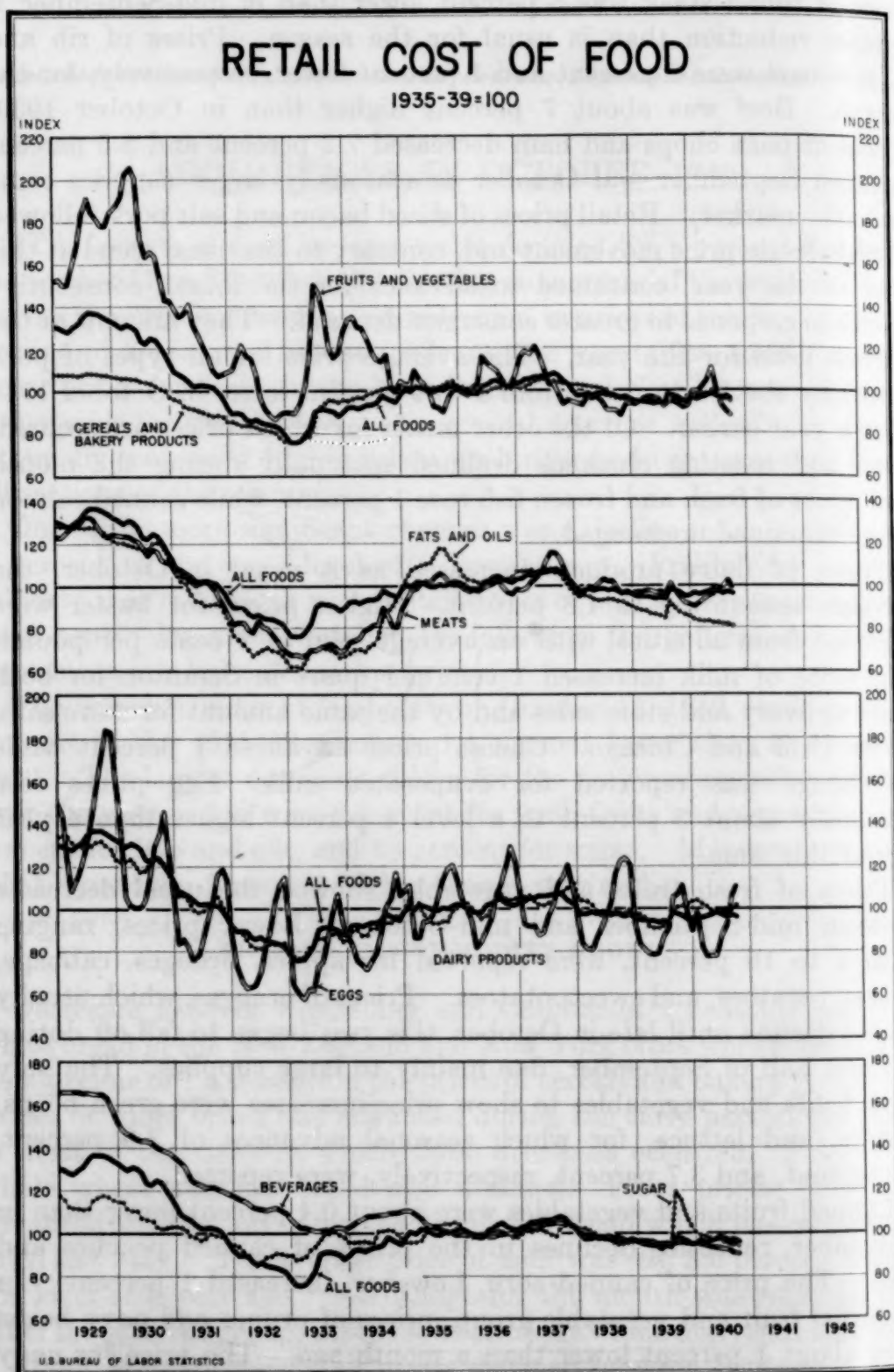
Prices of dairy products increased as is usual in October, the advance amounting to 1.8 percent. Higher prices for butter were reported from all cities, with an average gain of 2 cents per pound. The price of milk increased 1 cent per quart in Scranton for both home delivery and store sales and by the same amount for store sales in St. Paul and Chicago. Cheese prices advanced 1 percent while no change was reported for evaporated milk. Egg prices rose seasonally about 5 percent to a level 4 percent higher than a year ago at this time.

Prices of fresh fruits and vegetables showed the usual decreases between mid-September and mid-October. Lower prices, ranging from 1 to 10 percent, were reported for apples, oranges, cabbage, onions, potatoes, and sweetpotatoes. Prices of oranges, which usually do not decline until late in October, this year began to fall off during the first half of September, due mainly to large supplies. The only fresh fruits and vegetables to show price increases were green beans, carrots, and lettuce, for which seasonal advances of 3.9 percent, 2.0 percent, and 3.7 percent, respectively, were reported.

Canned fruits and vegetables were about 0.4 percent lower than in September, reflecting declines in the prices of canned peaches and peas. The price of canned corn, however, increased 1 percent. In the dried fruit and vegetable group, prices of prunes and navy beans were about 1 percent lower than a month ago. The price for navy beans was more than 8 percent below the level of October last year.

Prices of coffee continued their long-time downward trend and declined 1 percent between September 17 and October 15 to a level about 7 percent lower than for the same period last year.

Prices of lard, which had been fluctuating within a narrow range during the year, declined one-tenth of a cent per pound in October.



Small reductions were also reported for shortening, salad dressing, and oleomargarine.

Sugar prices were reduced one-tenth of 1 percent and were 18 percent lower than for the same period last year, just after the sharp increase which followed the outbreak of the war in Europe.

Indexes of retail food costs October and September 1940 and October 1939 are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart on the 1935-39 base shows the trend in the costs of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period January 1929 to October 1940.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, October and September 1940 and October 1939*
[1935-39=100]

Commodity group	1940		1939
	Oct. 15 ²	Sept. 17	Oct. 17
All foods	96.2	97.2	97.6
Cereals and bakery products.....	94.8	96.2	94.9
Meats.....	99.1	102.4	96.8
Dairy products.....	101.5	99.7	100.5
Eggs.....	110.7	105.7	106.5
Fruits and vegetables.....	88.4	90.4	94.7
Fresh.....	86.9	89.4	94.6
Canned.....	91.5	91.9	93.2
Dried.....	99.4	100.5	100.9
Beverages.....	90.7	91.1	95.2
Fats and oils.....	80.5	81.3	89.0
Sugar.....	94.7	94.8	115.5

¹ Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined with the use of population weights. (A discussion of the revision of the retail food-cost indexes will be found in the May 1940 issue of RETAIL PRICES.)

² Preliminary.

Retail prices of 31 of the 54 foods included in the index were lower in October than in September, 11 were higher, and for 12 there was no change. Of the 53 foods for which last year's prices are available, 24 were quoted at lower prices, 23 at higher prices, and for 6 there was no change. Average prices of each of 63 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for September and October 1940 and October 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, October and September 1940 and October 1939*

Article	1940		1939
	Oct. 15 ¹	Sept. 17	Oct. 17
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds	40.3	40.1	41.8
Macaroni.....pound	13.9	13.9	14.2
Wheat cereal ²28-oz. pkg.	23.5	23.6	23.8
Corn flakes.....8-oz. pkg.	7.0	7.0	7.0
Corn meal.....pound	4.2	4.2	4.2
Rice ²do.	7.9	7.9	8.1
Rolled oats ²do.	7.1	7.2	7.1
Bakery products:			
Bread, white.....do.	7.8	8.1	7.8
Bread, whole-wheat.....do.	8.8	9.0	8.7
Bread, rye.....do.	9.3	9.4	9.1
Vanilla cookies.....do.	24.9	24.9	25.3
Soda crackers.....do.	15.0	15.1	15.0

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 63 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined, October and September 1940 and October 1939—Continued

Article	1940		1939
	Oct. 15	Sept. 17	Oct. 17
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak.....pound..	Cents 38.3	Cents 40.3	Cents 36.0
Rib roast.....do.....	31.0	31.7	29.0
Chuck roast.....do.....	25.3	25.5	23.4
Veal:			
Cutlets.....do.....	44.2	45.0	43.5
Pork:			
Chops.....do.....	30.5	32.9	32.0
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	28.5	27.6	30.8
Ham, sliced ¹do.....	44.2	44.6	46.0
Ham, whole.....do.....	24.5	25.4	27.0
Salt pork.....do.....	15.6	15.0	16.3
Lamb:			
Leg.....do.....	28.0	29.3	27.0
Rib chops.....do.....	34.6	37.8	33.8
Poultry:			
Roasting chickens.....do.....	29.9	31.0	28.8
Fish:			
Fresh, frozen.....do.....	(²)	(²)	(¹)
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can..	15.7	15.7	14.2
Salmon, red ¹do.....	26.0	25.9	24.8
Dairy products:			
Butter.....pound..	36.3	34.3	34.9
Cheese.....do.....	25.9	25.7	25.8
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart..	12.7	12.7	12.7
Milk, fresh (store).....do.....	11.5	11.3	11.7
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) ¹do.....	12.3	12.3	12.4
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can..	7.0	7.0	6.9
Eggs.....dozen..	39.1	37.2	37.5
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound..	4.6	4.7	4.0
Bananas.....do.....	6.4	6.4	6.2
Oranges.....dozen..	30.0	30.3	35.7
Beans, green.....pound..	8.0	7.7	8.4
Cabbage.....do.....	2.6	2.8	3.3
Carrots.....bunch..	5.2	5.1	5.1
Lettuce.....head..	8.5	8.2	10.2
Onions.....pound..	3.3	3.6	3.2
Potatoes.....15 pounds..	28.0	28.8	34.8
Spinach.....pound..	5.4	7.9	5.8
Sweet potatoes.....do.....	3.9	4.3	3.5
Canned:			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can..	16.6	16.8	17.0
Pineapple.....do.....	20.9	20.9	20.9
Beans, green ¹No. 2 can..	9.9	9.8	9.9
Corn.....do.....	10.6	10.6	10.4
Peas.....do.....	13.5	13.5	13.6
Tomatoes.....do.....	8.4	8.4	8.6
Dried:			
Prunes.....pound..	9.6	9.7	9.1
Navy beans.....do.....	6.5	6.6	7.1
Beverages:			
Coffee.....do.....	20.6	20.8	22.2
Tea.....½ pound..	17.5	17.5	17.2
Cocoa ¹8-oz. can..	9.1	9.1	8.9
Fats and oils:			
Lard.....pound..	9.2	9.3	11.6
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do.....	11.5	11.6	12.4
In other containers.....do.....	18.5	18.6	19.8
Salad dressing.....pint..	20.3	20.6	(¹)
Oleomargarine.....pound..	15.7	15.8	16.7
Peanut butter.....do.....	17.8	17.8	18.0
Sugar and sweets:			
Sugar.....10 pounds..	50.9	51.0	62.3
Corn sirup ¹24-oz. can..	13.6	13.5	13.5
Molasses ¹18-oz. can..	13.4	13.4	13.4

¹ Preliminary.² Not included in index. Prices for these items for October 1939 are weighted averages.³ Composite prices not computed.⁴ Revised.⁵ Effective January 1940, salad dressing replaced mayonnaise in the food-cost index.

DETAILS BY REGIONS AND CITIES

Average food costs to wage earners declined in 38 cities, increased in 12, and in 1 there was no change. Decreases of 2 percent or more were reported for 9 cities, the largest declines being for Cleveland (2.7 percent), Bridgeport (2.4 percent), and New Haven (2.3 percent). The lower costs were due to greater-than-average declines for meats in all 3 cities as well as for cereals and bakery products in Bridgeport and New Haven and for fruits and vegetables in Cleveland. The only increase of more than 1 percent occurred in Houston, Tex. (1.3 percent), where meat prices advanced 4.7 percent, the largest increase in meat prices in any city.

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for October and September 1940 and October 1939.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Cities,¹ October and September 1940 and October 1939

[1935-39=100]

Region and city	1940		1939	Region and city	1940		1939
	Oct. 15 ²	Sept. 17	Oct. 17		Oct. 15 ²	Sept. 17	Oct. 17
United States.....	96.2	97.2	97.6	West North Central—Con.			
New England:				St. Louis.....	97.0	³ 96.9	98.1
Boston.....	94.9	96.8	95.4	St. Paul.....	95.5	95.0	97.9
Bridgeport.....	95.4	³ 97.7	95.9	South Atlantic:			
Fall River.....	96.5	97.9	97.4	Atlanta.....	94.9	94.7	97.1
Manchester.....	97.0	98.7	98.4	Baltimore.....	95.4	96.4	98.0
New Haven.....	95.0	97.2	95.9	Charleston, S. C.....	96.0	96.3	98.5
Portland, Maine.....	94.9	³ 96.1	95.4	Jacksonville.....	99.6	³ 101.4	99.3
Providence.....	97.2	99.2	97.2	Norfolk.....	94.6	95.2	95.4
Middle Atlantic:				Richmond.....	92.5	³ 93.1	93.9
Buffalo.....	97.2	98.7	97.8	Savannah.....	99.3	99.5	99.1
Newark.....	97.5	99.4	97.4	Washington, D. C.....	95.5	96.9	96.3
New York.....	97.0	99.1	98.6	East South Central:			
Philadelphia.....	93.5	93.8	96.7	Birmingham.....	94.1	94.1	95.9
Pittsburgh.....	96.6	97.0	96.3	Louisville.....	94.9	94.6	96.5
Rochester.....	97.5	99.5	97.4	Memphis.....	93.3	93.0	95.8
Seranton.....	96.6	97.1	97.5	Mobile.....	96.1	96.5	99.5
East North Central:				West South Central:			
Chicago.....	97.1	97.6	98.6	Dallas.....	93.1	92.8	95.8
Cincinnati.....	94.5	96.6	94.9	Houston.....	101.0	99.7	100.5
Cleveland.....	97.8	³ 100.4	98.0	Little Rock.....	92.8	93.5	97.2
Columbus, Ohio.....	91.3	92.1	94.8	New Orleans.....	100.5	101.9	102.1
Detroit.....	95.5	96.0	96.5	Mountain:			
Indianapolis.....	95.9	96.7	96.4	Butte.....	96.9	97.7	98.2
Milwaukee.....	94.6	95.1	93.3	Denver.....	93.2	92.9	95.9
Peoria.....	98.4	98.7	97.7	Salt Lake City.....	97.8	98.5	98.9
Springfield, Ill.....	95.6	97.7	97.4	Pacific:			
West North Central:				Los Angeles.....	97.5	97.8	101.0
Kansas City.....	90.6	³ 90.0	97.1	Portland, Oreg.....	99.9	100.5	100.5
Minneapolis.....	97.2	97.1	99.9	San Francisco.....	98.2	97.9	99.1
Omaha.....	97.5	97.3	98.9	Seattle.....	99.0	100.1	99.9

¹ Aggregate costs of 54 foods in each city, weighted to represent total purchases of families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights. (A discussion of the revision of the retail food-cost indexes will be found in the May 1940 issue of Retail Prices.)

² Preliminary.

³ Revised.

COAL PRICES IN SEPTEMBER 1940

SEASONAL price increases between June and September were shown both for bituminous coal and for Pennsylvania and Arkansas anthra-

cite, with the advances somewhat greater than were recorded for the corresponding period of 1939. New Mexico anthracite prices in September 1940 showed no change for the 3-month period, but were slightly higher than in September 1939. Colorado anthracite prices have shown no change for the past 4 years.

The average price of bituminous coal for 38 cities was 2.2 percent higher in September 1940 than in June, and 1.1 percent higher than in September 1939. Prices of stove, chestnut, and pea sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite in 25 cities advanced about 3.5 percent during the quarter, while buckwheat increased less than five-tenths of 1 percent. The increase over September 1939 for these 4 sizes ranged from 6.6 percent for buckwheat to 9.4 percent for pea. The average price of Arkansas anthracite for 8 cities was about 2.5 percent above those recorded for June 1940 and September 1939.

Average retail prices of coal, together with indexes for bituminous coal and for stove and chestnut sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite based on the 3-year period October 1922 through September 1925 as 100, are presented in table 4 for September and June 1940 and September 1939.

TABLE 4.—Average Retail Prices of Coal in Large Cities Combined, September and June 1940 and September 1939

Kind of coal	Average retail price per ton of 2,000 pounds			Index of retail price (October 1922-September 1925=100)			Percentage change September 15, 1940, compared with	
	1940		1939	1940		1939	1940	1939
	Sept. 15 ¹	June 15	Sept. 15	Sept. 15 ¹	June 15	Sept. 15	June 15	Sept. 15
Bituminous coal (37 cities), old series ²	\$8.54	\$8.36	\$8.45	87.0	85.5	86.9	+2.2	+1.1
Pennsylvania anthracite (25 cities), new series: ⁴								
Stove.....	11.40	11.02	10.56	81.0	78.3	75.1	+3.4	+8.0
Chestnut.....	11.41	11.04	10.64	81.2	78.6	75.7	+3.4	+7.2
Pea.....	9.45	9.12	8.64				+3.6	+9.4
Buckwheat.....	8.12	8.00	7.62				+4	+6.6
Western anthracite: ³								
Arkansas (8 cities).....	12.38	12.08	12.09				+2.5	+2.4
Colorado (1 city).....	15.81	15.81	15.81				0	0
New Mexico (1 city).....	23.86	23.86	23.69				0	+7

¹ Preliminary.

² Unweighted average. Weighted composite prices are in preparation.

³ Revised.

⁴ Weighted on the basis of the distribution by rail and tidewater to each city during the 12-month period from Aug. 1, 1935, to July 31, 1936.

Details by Kinds of Coal

Bituminous coal.—Prices of one or more kinds of bituminous coal are reported from 47 of the 51 cities. Prices of low-volatile coal and of eastern high-volatile coal each represent reports from 27 cities in the Atlantic and Central areas. Seventeen of these cities report on both kinds. Western high-volatile coal is represented by prices from

20 cities in the Central and Pacific areas. Nine of these cities do not report for other kinds of bituminous coal.

Prices of low-volatile coal tended upward between June and September in 15 of the 27 reporting cities. In 9 of these cities the increases amounted to 25 cents or more per ton for 1 or more sizes. The greatest advance was in Richmond, where stove and egg sizes were \$1 per ton higher. In Washington these sizes advanced 70 cents, and a like increase was shown in Fall River for egg. Prices remained unchanged in 10 cities and 2 reported compensating changes for the various sizes.

Eastern high-volatile coal prices were higher in September in 17 of the 27 reporting cities, with a majority of the increases ranging between 15 and 25 cents per ton. Only 4 cities showed advances of more than 50 cents. In Atlanta, Washington, and Mobile some sizes increased as much as 65 cents, and in Richmond the general increase for all sizes was from 50 to 55 cents. Prices in the remaining 10 cities were practically unchanged.

Contrasting price movements for western high-volatile coal included higher prices in nine cities, lower prices in three cities, and either no change or minor compensating changes in eight cities. Advances of about 45 cents were reported for lump and egg in Minneapolis and St. Paul and for stoker in Kansas City. Increases in other cities ranged between 5 and 35 cents. Sharp decreases for various sizes in Salt Lake City amounted to from 32 cents to \$1 per ton, and in Springfield from 32 cents to about 85 cents. Smaller decreases in Seattle ranged between 10 and 55 cents.

Anthracite.—Retail prices of Pennsylvania anthracite are reported from 25 of the 51 cities, Arkansas anthracite from 8 cities, and Colorado and New Mexico anthracite from 1 city each.

Prices of stove, chestnut, and pea sizes of Pennsylvania anthracite showed general advances of 20 cents or more per ton between June and September in all cities except Manchester and Pittsburgh, where one or more of these sizes advanced a few cents, and Norfolk where no change occurred. The greatest increase, \$1 per ton, was reported for these three sizes in Portland, Maine, and for stove and Chestnut in Richmond. Advances of about 75 cents occurred in Washington and Baltimore, and of 70 cents in Fall River. In no other cities were the increases as much as 60 cents. Buckwheat prices remained unchanged or showed very slight advances in 14 cities. The only cities showing an increase of more than 35 cents were Baltimore and Richmond where prices advanced 60 cents and 50 cents, respectively.

Of the eight cities reporting on Arkansas anthracite, three showed advances of from 25 to 40 cents per ton, four showed no change, and in one, New Orleans, there was a decrease of about 50 cents per ton. Prices of Colorado and New Mexico anthracite showed no change for the 3-month period.

Cost of Living

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, SEPTEMBER 15, 1940

THE cost of living in large cities throughout the United States has changed very little in the past 3 months. Reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics show that living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers in 33 large cities were at approximately the same level on September 15 as on June 15, 1940. Food costs were lower than in June. On the whole there was a slight drop in clothing, although there were advances in prices of some woolen goods. There were small increases in the cost of most of the other important items in the family budget, including rents, housefurnishings, and miscellaneous items.

Living costs in mid-September of this year were about 2 percent above costs in August 1939, the month before the outbreak of the European war. They were, however, 0.2 percent below costs in September 1939. This difference was largely due to the sharp rise in retail food prices which took place in the first weeks of September 1939.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' cost-of-living index for 33 cities is based on a list of the commodities and services consumed by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as shown by the Bureau's recent study of the family expenditures of that group. The index thus computed, based on an average of costs in 1935-39 as 100, was 100.4 on September 15, as compared with 100.5 on June 15, 1940.¹

Costs were lower in 13 of the 33 cities covered, but the declines reported were in all cases less than 1 percent. Of the 20 cities reporting increases, 3 showed advances of slightly more than 1.0 percent, Birmingham (1.2) and Cincinnati and New Orleans (1.1).

¹ The cost-of-living index upon which these changes were estimated is based on a new list of items revised to represent current consumption habits. The relative weight of each item in the revised index is based on the distribution of expenditures as shown by the 1934-36 study of family expenditures of wage earners and lower-salaried workers made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The most important of the additions to the list of commodities and services priced quarterly by the Bureau are automobiles, gasoline, fuel oil, electric refrigerators, radios, dry cleaning, and beauty shop services. One city, Manchester, N. H., has been added to the 32 cities formerly covered by these surveys. In accordance with a recommendation of the Central Statistical Board, a base of an average of the years 1935-39 is being used in presenting the revised indexes of living costs for wage earners and lower-salaried workers. This base has been recommended by the Central Statistical Board for adoption by Federal agencies which prepare general-purpose index numbers. See the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August 1940 for details in regard to the method of calculating the new index.

Food costs in the cities combined were 1.2 percent lower in mid-September than in mid-June. Declines were reported in 18 of the 33 cities for which data on the entire cost of living are calculated by the Bureau. The largest declines were reported in Denver, 3.4 percent, and Kansas City, 3.3 percent. Fifteen of the 33 cities showed increases ranging from one-tenth of 1 percent in Indianapolis to 2.3 percent in Cincinnati and Birmingham.

Prices of most fruits and vegetables were seasonally lower. In addition, retail prices of flour decreased over the quarter, continuing the decline which began in May. Bread prices declined in 7 of the 51 cities from which retail food prices are secured monthly. Since September 15, declines have been reported from certain other cities in the New England and Middle Atlantic areas. Seasonal increases in meat and egg prices occurred in all cities and were generally responsible for the rise in aggregate food costs in the cities where the total was higher in September than in June. These various changes brought the food-cost index for September 15, 1940, to 97.2 percent of the 1935-39 average. Foods are thus 4 percent higher than in August 1939, the month before the outbreak of the war in Europe.

Clothing prices remained relatively stable over the quarter. The clothing index for the 33 large cities combined decreased 0.2 percent, reflecting slight declines in 19 cities and increases in 14. In only one city, Manchester, N. H., was the advance as much as 1 percent. The rise which occurred was largely in woolen goods—men's suits and overcoats, and women's coats. All the increases were slight.

Average rental costs for all types of dwellings occupied by families with moderate income in these 33 cities were only 0.1 percent higher. In many cities, shortages, particularly in low-rent dwellings, have been reported, reflecting the heightened demand for housing under the defense program. Over the quarter, rents rose slightly in 26 of the 33 cities, and in the other 7 cities remained almost stationary, declining in each case not more than 0.1 percent. The greatest increases in the cities surveyed occurred in Birmingham, Memphis, Manchester, and Norfolk.

A seasonal rise in coal prices was reported from 25 cities, and declines from 2 cities. Prices of fuel oil dropped in 7 cities and showed no change in the others from which prices for this type of fuel are secured. Electricity rates were reduced in 4 cities and showed no change in the others. The greatest decline occurred in Seattle, where the decrease was almost 10 percent. There was little change in the price of ice.

Housefurnishings increased slightly in 24 cities and dropped in 9, with an average increase in the 33 cities of 0.3 percent. Advances in the cost of wool blankets were generally reported throughout the country.

Largely as a result of the imposition of defense taxes on such items as movies, cigarettes, gasoline, and automobiles, the index of the cost of miscellaneous goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers rose in 28 cities. The largest rise, 2.2 percent, occurred in New Orleans. In 5 cities, however, miscellaneous costs dropped. In Mobile, for example, lowered gasoline prices were largely responsible for the decline.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers from June 15, 1940, to September 15, 1940, are shown in table 1 for 33 large cities of the United States, separately, and for these cities combined.

TABLE 1.—Percentage Change From June 15, to Sept. 15, 1940, in the Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers

City	All items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: 33 large cities.....	-0.1	¹ -1.2	-0.2	+0.1	+0.8	+0.3	+0.8
New England:							
Boston.....	-0.6	-2.1	-0.1	(²)	-0.8	+0.1	+0.8
Manchester.....	-0.2	-1.3	+1.0	+0.7	-1.6	-0.4	+1.2
Portland, Maine.....	-0.5	-1.0	+0.4	(²)	-1.5	(²)	-0.1
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	(²)	-1.4	+0.1	+0.3	+1.6	(²)	+1.1
New York.....	-0.5	-2.0	-0.1	+0.1	+0.2	-0.5	+0.7
Philadelphia.....	-0.4	-2.2	-0.1	+0.2	+1.3	+0.5	+0.7
Pittsburgh.....	+0.2	-1.1	-0.1	+0.1	+2.9	+0.4	+1.3
Scranton.....	-0.2	-1.2	+0.1	(²)	+1.7	+0.7	+0.6
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	-0.5	-1.9	-0.4	+0.1	+1.0	+0.6	+0.4
Cincinnati.....	+1.1	+2.3	-0.3	+0.1	+2.1	+0.5	+0.9
Cleveland.....	+0.7	+1.5	-0.2	+0.1	(²)	-0.3	+0.9
Detroit.....	-0.4	-2.4	-0.6	+0.2	+1.9	-0.3	+0.9
Indianapolis.....	+0.5	+0.1	-0.7	+0.4	+2.3	+0.2	+1.1
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	-0.8	-3.3	-0.1	+0.1	+1.3	+0.9	-0.1
Minneapolis.....	+0.1	-0.9	+0.1	+0.1	+1.2	(²)	+0.8
St. Louis.....	+0.2	-0.8	+0.1	-0.1	+2.1	+0.5	+1.1
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	+0.9	+1.6	+0.4	+0.1	+3.7	+0.4	+0.4
Baltimore.....	-0.4	-2.4	-0.2	+0.3	+2.5	+0.4	+0.6
Jacksonville.....	+0.7	+0.9	+0.3	(²)	+1.0	+1.2	+1.0
Norfolk.....	+0.6	+0.5	-0.6	+0.7	+1.0	+0.6	+0.7
Richmond.....	+0.8	+0.8	(²)	+0.3	+3.5	+1.7	+0.6
Savannah.....	+0.2	-0.1	(²)	(²)	-0.8	+0.4	+0.9
Washington, D. C.....	(²)	-1.5	+0.5	+0.1	+1.6	+0.7	+0.6
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	+1.2	+2.3	-0.2	+0.9	+1.4	+0.5	+0.9
Memphis.....	+0.3	+0.3	-0.6	+0.9	+0.1	(²)	+0.6
Mobile.....	-0.5	-0.8	(²)	+0.3	+0.2	-0.9	-0.6
West South Central:							
Houston.....	+0.5	+1.9	(²)	+0.1	(²)	-0.2	-0.3
New Orleans.....	+1.1	+1.0	+0.3	+0.4	-0.4	+1.3	+2.2
Mountain: Denver.....	-0.9	-3.4	+0.1	+0.1	+0.2	-0.1	+0.7
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	+0.4	+0.3	-0.3	-0.1	(²)	+1.3	+0.9
Portland, Oreg.....	+0.8	+0.7	-0.3	+0.2	+1.8	+0.5	+1.3
San Francisco.....	+0.7	+1.2	-0.2	(²)	-0.1	+0.4	+1.2
Seattle.....	+0.1	+0.3	-0.3	-0.1	-4.5	-0.3	+0.9

¹ Includes 51 cities.

² Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

³ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

⁴ No change.

Percentage changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers from the low point June 1933, from September 15, 1937, from August 15, 1939, and from June 15, to September 15, 1940, in 33 cities, are presented in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Percentage Change in Cost of All Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers for Specified Periods

City	Percentage change from—			
	June 1933 to Sept. 15, 1940	Sept. 15, 1937, to Sept. 15, 1940	Aug. 15, 1939, ¹ to Sept. 15, 1940	June 15, 1940, to Sept. 15, 1940
Average: 33 large cities.....	+10.5	-3.8	+1.8	-0.1
New England:				
Boston.....	+6.8	-5.2	+2.4	-.6
Manchester.....	(²)	-3.1	+2.6	-.2
Portland, Maine.....	+4.5	-5.0	+1.3	-.5
Middle Atlantic:				
Buffalo.....	+11.5	-3.1	+2.8	(³)
New York.....	+7.8	-2.8	+2.1	-.5
Philadelphia.....	+8.3	-5.0	+1.0	-.4
Pittsburgh.....	+11.9	-4.2	+2.4	+2
Scranton.....	+6.1	-5.0	+2.7	-.2
East North Central:				
Chicago.....	+11.8	-4.0	+2.3	-.5
Cincinnati.....	+10.3	-4.3	+2.6	+1.1
Cleveland.....	+14.8	-2.0	+2.2	+7
Detroit.....	+20.3	-5.4	+1.9	-.4
Indianapolis.....	+11.8	-4.6	+2.8	+5
West North Central:				
Kansas City.....	+5.6	-5.8	-.9	-.8
Minneapolis.....	+13.8	-3.2	+1.2	+1
St. Louis.....	+9.9	-4.2	+1.7	+2
South Atlantic:				
Atlanta.....	+9.3	-4.8	+1.4	+9
Baltimore.....	+10.4	-2.8	+1.3	-.4
Jacksonville.....	+12.6	-2.4	+2.5	+7
Norfolk.....	+9.9	-3.7	+1.3	+6
Richmond.....	+9.1	-4.1	+1.3	+8
Savannah.....	+10.4	-1.9	+1.7	+2
Washington, D. C.....	+7.9	-3.2	+1.4	(⁴)
East South Central:				
Birmingham.....	+13.6	-4.4	+1.9	+1.2
Memphis.....	+9.6	-4.5	+1.0	+3
Mobile.....	+9.6	-4.4	+2	-.5
West South Central:				
Houston.....	+14.3	-2.3	+4	+5
New Orleans.....	+14.1	-.8	+2.6	+1.1
Mountain: Denver.....	+9.9	-6.0	+3	-.9
Pacific:				
Los Angeles.....	+11.7	-2.8	+7	+4
Portland, Oreg.....	+14.5	-2.5	+1.3	+8
San Francisco.....	+8.7	-2.0	+1.6	+7
Seattle.....	+10.0	-1.9	+1.4	+1

¹ Estimated on the basis of food, fuel, and light prices as of Aug. 15, 1939, and prices for other items as of June 15, 1939.

² Data not available prior to March 1935.

³ Increase of less than 0.05 percent.

⁴ Decrease of less than 0.05 percent.

Indexes on 1935-39 Base

Indexes of the average cost of all goods purchased by families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers are constructed for each of the 33 cities surveyed and for these cities combined, using an average of the years 1935-39 as the base.¹ These indexes, from 1913 through September 15, 1940, for the large cities combined, are shown in table 3.

¹ Indexes of food costs based on costs in 1935-39 as 100 are computed monthly for 51 cities (including the 33 cities in this report). Percentage changes from month to month are calculated for 5 additional cities. These data will be sent upon request.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities Combined, 1913 Through Sept. 15, 1940

[Average 1935-39=100]

Date	All Items	Food	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House- furnish- ings	Miscel- laneous
1913—Average.....	70.7	79.9	69.3	92.2	61.9	59.1	50.9
1914—December.....	72.6	83.9	70.0	92.2	62.5	61.5	52.4
1915—December.....	74.0	83.9	72.5	93.6	62.5	65.4	54.6
1916—December.....	82.4	100.6	83.2	94.3	67.1	75.5	57.6
1917—December.....	97.8	125.4	103.3	92.3	76.8	89.0	71.5
1918—December.....	118.0	149.6	147.9	97.1	90.4	121.2	83.1
1919—June.....	121.0	148.5	160.1	101.0	89.3	128.8	85.5
December.....	135.3	160.0	198.4	109.6	94.8	152.3	94.3
1920—June.....	149.4	185.0	209.7	119.1	104.8	169.7	100.7
December.....	138.3	146.4	187.8	131.4	119.0	164.4	104.7
1921—May.....	126.6	121.2	161.5	139.2	112.9	141.6	104.7
September.....	125.3	129.2	139.5	140.0	112.7	127.8	104.0
December.....	123.6	126.1	133.4	142.3	113.8	124.4	103.5
1922—March.....	119.3	118.3	127.3	142.0	110.5	117.7	101.8
June.....	119.5	121.0	124.9	142.5	110.0	115.5	100.9
September.....	118.7	118.1	123.5	142.8	115.8	115.7	100.7
December.....	120.4	122.4	123.6	143.8	117.3	119.3	100.4
1923—March.....	120.2	119.7	125.4	144.5	116.5	124.7	100.5
June.....	121.6	123.7	125.7	146.0	113.2	127.4	100.5
September.....	123.1	126.6	126.7	147.4	114.5	127.5	101.1
December.....	123.5	126.0	126.7	149.6	116.0	127.4	101.5
1924—March.....	122.0	121.3	126.3	150.4	114.7	126.5	101.2
June.....	121.8	121.5	125.1	152.0	112.0	123.1	101.3
September.....	122.2	123.1	123.8	152.2	113.5	122.1	101.3
December.....	123.2	125.9	123.0	152.6	114.2	122.7	101.7
1925—June.....	124.9	131.9	122.6	152.2	112.4	121.3	102.3
December.....	128.2	140.6	121.8	152.0	121.3	121.1	102.6
1926—June.....	126.4	137.8	120.7	150.6	114.7	118.6	102.5
December.....	126.1	136.8	119.6	150.0	118.6	117.3	102.8
1927—June.....	125.7	137.5	118.5	148.4	114.1	115.7	103.1
December.....	123.8	132.5	116.9	146.9	115.4	115.2	103.6
1928—June.....	122.1	129.7	116.7	144.8	112.0	112.8	103.6
December.....	122.4	130.6	116.0	143.3	114.3	112.1	104.3
1929—June.....	122.1	131.3	115.4	141.4	111.1	111.7	104.5
December.....	122.8	133.8	114.7	139.9	113.6	111.3	104.9
1930—June.....	120.3	128.1	113.8	138.0	109.9	109.9	105
December.....	115.3	116.5	109.4	135.1	112.4	105.4	104.9
1931—June.....	108.2	102.1	103.5	130.9	107.3	98.1	104.3
December.....	104.2	96.5	96.3	125.8	109.1	92.6	103.3
1932—June.....	97.4	85.7	91.1	117.8	106	84.8	101.8
December.....	93.5	82.0	86.2	109.0	102.5	81.3	100.2
1933—June.....	90.8	82.2	84.8	100.1	97.4	81.5	97.8
December.....	93.9	88.1	94.4	95.8	102.9	91.7	98.1
1934—June.....	95.3	93.0	96.6	94.0	100.3	92.7	97.9
November 15.....	96.2	95.4	96.5	93.9	101.8	94.6	97.8
1935—March 15.....	97.8	99.7	96.8	93.8	102.1	94.2	98.1
July 15.....	97.6	99.4	96.7	94.1	99.0	94.5	98.2
October 15.....	98.0	100.0	96.9	94.6	100.5	95.7	97.9
1936—January 15.....	98.8	101.5	97.3	95.1	100.8	95.8	98.2
April 15.....	97.8	98.4	97.4	95.5	100.8	95.7	98.4
July 15.....	99.4	102.6	97.2	96.5	99.1	95.9	98.7
September 15.....	100.4	104.8	97.5	97.1	99.9	96.6	99.0
December 15.....	99.8	101.6	99.0	98.1	100.5	97.9	99.1
1937—March 15.....	101.8	105.0	100.9	98.9	100.8	102.6	100.2
June 15.....	102.8	106.0	102.5	101.0	99.2	104.3	100.9
September 15.....	104.3	107.9	105.1	102.1	100.0	106.7	101.7
December 15.....	103.0	102.7	104.8	103.7	100.7	107.0	102.0
1938—March 15.....	100.9	97.5	102.9	103.9	101.2	104.7	101.6
June 15.....	100.9	98.2	102.2	104.2	98.6	103.1	101.8
September 15.....	100.7	98.1	101.4	104.2	99.3	101.9	101.6
December 15.....	100.2	97.2	100.9	104.3	100.0	101.7	101.0
1939—March 15.....	99.1	94.6	100.4	104.3	100.1	100.9	100.5
June 15.....	98.6	93.6	100.3	104.3	97.5	100.6	100.4
September 15.....	100.6	98.4	100.3	104.4	98.6	101.1	101.1
December 15.....	99.6	94.9	101.3	104.4	99.9	102.7	100.9
1940—March 15.....	99.8	95.6	102.0	104.5	100.6	100.5	100.8
June 15.....	100.5	98.3	101.7	104.6	98.6	100.1	100.6
September 15.....	100.4	97.2	101.6	104.7	99.3	100.3	101.4

TABLE 4.—Estimated¹ Annual Average Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Large Cities Combined, 1913-39

[Average 1935-39=100]

Year	All items	Food ²	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House furnishings	Miscellaneous
1913.....	70.7	79.9	69.3	92.2	61.9	59.1	50.9
1914.....	71.8	81.8	69.8	92.2	62.3	60.7	51.9
1915.....	72.5	80.9	71.4	92.9	62.5	63.6	53.6
1916.....	77.9	90.8	78.3	94.0	65.0	70.9	56.3
1917.....	91.6	116.9	94.1	93.2	72.4	82.8	65.1
1918.....	107.5	134.4	127.5	94.9	84.2	106.4	77.8
1919.....	124.5	152.1	168.7	102.7	91.1	134.1	87.6
1920.....	143.2	168.5	201.0	120.7	106.9	164.6	100.5
1921.....	127.7	128.6	154.8	138.6	114.0	138.5	104.3
1922.....	119.7	120.3	125.6	142.7	113.1	117.5	101.2
1923.....	121.9	121.0	125.9	146.4	115.2	126.1	100.8
1924.....	122.2	122.8	124.9	151.6	113.7	124.0	101.4
1925.....	125.4	132.9	122.4	152.2	115.4	121.5	102.2
1926.....	126.0	137.4	120.6	150.7	117.2	118.8	102.6
1927.....	127.0	132.3	118.3	148.3	115.4	115.9	103.2
1928.....	122.6	130.8	116.5	144.8	113.4	113.1	103.8
1929.....	122.5	132.5	115.3	141.4	112.5	111.7	104.6
1930.....	119.4	126.0	112.7	137.5	111.4	108.9	105.1
1931.....	108.7	103.9	102.6	130.3	108.9	98.0	104.1
1932.....	97.6	86.5	90.8	116.9	103.4	85.4	101.7
1933.....	92.4	84.1	87.9	100.7	100.0	84.2	98.4
1934.....	95.7	93.7	96.1	94.4	101.4	92.8	97.9
1935.....	98.1	100.4	96.8	94.2	100.7	94.8	98.1
1936.....	99.1	101.3	97.6	96.4	100.2	96.3	98.7
1937.....	102.7	105.3	102.8	100.9	100.2	104.3	101.0
1938.....	100.8	97.8	102.2	104.1	99.9	103.3	101.5
1939.....	99.4	95.2	100.5	104.3	99.0	101.3	100.7

¹ For explanation of method used, see text below.² Covers 51 cities since June 1920.³ Corrected figure.

The indexes of the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show relative costs as of particular dates. For various purposes, however, it is often necessary to have estimates of annual average indexes. These estimates are, therefore, presented in table 4, for large cities combined, from 1913 through 1939. The annual average indexes have been computed as follows: The annual average food index is an average of the monthly indexes falling within each year; the annual average indexes for clothing; rent; fuel, electricity, and ice; housefurnishings; and miscellaneous items are indexes of the weighted average of the aggregates for each pricing period affecting the year, the weights representing the relative importance of each pricing period. When these goods were priced only twice a year, in June and again in December, it is evident that prices in December of the previous year were more indicative of prices in the next month, January, even though it fell in a new year, than were the prices of the succeeding June. Therefore, costs in December of the preceding year and in June and December of the given year are all considered in arriving at an average cost for the year. The relative importance of each of these costs is expressed for December of the previous year by

2½, for June of the given year by 6, and for December of the given year by 3½. Weights for years in which pricing was done at other intervals will be furnished on request.

Table 5 presents September 15, 1940, indexes of living costs for families of wage earners and lower-salaried workers based on average costs in the years 1935-39 as 100, for each of the 33 cities, by groups of items.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Cost of Goods Purchased by Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers, by Groups of Items, Sept. 15, 1940
[Average 1935-39=100]

City	All items	Food ¹	Clothing	Rent	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House furnishings	Miscellaneous
Average: 33 large cities.....	100.4	97.2	101.6	104.7	99.3	100.3	101.4
New England:							
Boston.....	99.4	96.8	100.8	100.6	103.2	97.7	100.7
Manchester.....	100.3	98.5	101.1	102.5	101.0	99.7	101.3
Portland, Maine.....	98.4	96.0	100.4	100.6	98.8	99.4	98.9
Middle Atlantic:							
Buffalo.....	101.2	98.7	101.0	106.5	99.3	99.4	101.7
New York.....	101.0	99.1	101.0	102.7	99.8	97.0	103.2
Philadelphia.....	98.7	93.8	101.2	103.3	98.1	102.5	101.5
Pittsburgh.....	100.7	97.0	102.5	105.8	102.8	102.1	100.5
Scranton.....	98.6	97.1	101.8	98.1	96.3	98.9	100.6
East North Central:							
Chicago.....	100.9	97.6	99.4	108.7	98.9	102.3	100.6
Cincinnati.....	99.9	96.6	103.7	102.2	98.6	100.3	101.4
Cleveland.....	102.3	100.5	101.8	108.0	107.5	100.1	100.1
Detroit.....	100.5	96.0	101.2	107.9	98.9	99.2	100.7
Indianapolis.....	100.7	96.7	102.6	110.3	97.4	99.6	100.7
West North Central:							
Kansas City.....	97.8	89.8	102.8	102.8	98.6	98.3	100.9
Minneapolis.....	100.9	97.1	100.8	108.0	96.7	103.2	101.6
St. Louis.....	99.7	96.7	102.8	101.5	101.4	96.7	101.3
South Atlantic:							
Atlanta.....	99.4	94.7	102.7	104.5	100.1	98.1	100.4
Baltimore.....	100.0	96.4	101.3	104.4	99.8	101.7	101.3
Jacksonville.....	101.0	101.3	101.7	103.6	97.3	101.0	99.9
Norfolk.....	99.0	95.2	102.8	102.9	93.3	100.0	101.7
Richmond.....	99.3	93.4	103.5	103.1	100.4	104.6	100.8
Savannah.....	101.0	99.5	101.8	104.7	96.7	105.2	100.8
Washington, D. C.....	100.0	96.9	103.4	100.0	98.3	105.3	101.2
East South Central:							
Birmingham.....	100.3	94.1	102.3	114.8	91.0	98.4	101.1
Memphis.....	98.8	93.0	101.4	106.2	94.1	101.5	100.6
Mobile.....	98.8	96.5	100.6	106.0	94.7	101.0	98.0
West South Central:							
Houston.....	101.1	99.7	103.1	106.8	93.1	104.5	99.7
New Orleans.....	102.2	101.9	101.8	103.6	99.3	103.7	102.5
Mountain: Denver.....	98.9	92.9	100.0	106.7	98.1	102.1	100.4
Pacific:							
Los Angeles.....	101.2	97.8	103.1	106.5	95.5	101.5	102.1
Portland, Oreg.....	101.5	100.5	102.9	106.7	93.2	100.4	101.5
San Francisco.....	100.8	97.9	103.0	103.7	91.7	101.7	102.7
Seattle.....	101.7	100.1	103.6	106.6	93.9	98.2	102.7

¹ Includes 51 cities.

Table 6 presents indexes of the cost of all goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers in each of the 33 cities, for each date from March 15, 1935, through September 15, 1940, on the 1935-39 base. It is planned to publish these indexes for each group of items in each December report, and to publish only the indexes of the cost of all goods in the March, June, and September reports. Mimeographed tables of indexes for individual cities are available upon request.

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased By Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 33 Large Cities, Mar. 15, 1935, Through Sept. 15, 1940

[Average 1935-39=100]

Date	New England			Middle Atlantic				
	Boston	Man- chester	Port- land, Maine	Buffalo	New York	Phila- delphia	Pitts- burgh	Scran- ton
1935—March 15.....	100.3	99.1	100.0	96.9	98.9	98.0	96.9	99.8
July 15.....	99.0	99.2	100.7	97.7	98.3	98.2	97.4	99.9
October 15.....	99.2	98.9	100.1	97.2	98.7	99.0	98.3	100.3
1936—January 15.....	100.1	99.8	100.5	98.0	99.9	100.1	98.7	101.4
April 15.....	99.6	99.3	99.9	98.1	98.6	99.2	97.5	99.4
July 15.....	100.8	100.8	101.3	100.0	99.5	100.2	100.0	101.4
September 15.....	100.3	100.4	101.1	100.0	100.4	101.0	101.2	102.5
December 15.....	99.3	99.7	100.5	99.9	99.5	100.8	100.0	101.8
1937—March 15.....	101.5	102.1	102.0	101.7	101.3	102.2	101.8	102.1
June 15.....	102.6	103.2	103.6	103.9	101.4	102.7	103.6	102.9
September 15.....	104.8	103.5	103.5	104.5	103.9	104.0	105.2	103.8
December 15.....	102.2	101.6	101.8	103.6	102.8	101.6	102.5	101.2
1938—March 15.....	99.8	100.1	99.3	101.3	99.6	100.2	100.8	99.7
June 15.....	99.8	100.3	99.2	100.6	99.7	100.6	101.2	99.6
September 15.....	99.8	99.6	99.4	100.1	100.3	100.1	101.1	97.7
December 15.....	98.8	98.8	97.8	100.4	100.2	99.4	100.3	97.9
1939—March 15.....	98.1	98.0	96.6	99.3	99.2	98.2	97.8	96.9
June 15.....	97.4	97.9	96.4	98.6	98.2	98.0	98.4	96.4
September 15.....	99.3	100.4	99.0	101.1	101.3	99.6	100.1	98.7
December 15.....	97.9	99.0	97.6	99.7	100.1	98.6	98.8	97.4
1940—March 15.....	99.2	100.1	97.8	100.5	101.2	98.3	99.1	98.4
June 15.....	100.0	100.5	98.9	101.2	101.6	99.2	100.6	98.7
September 15.....	99.4	100.3	98.4	101.2	101.0	98.7	100.7	98.6
Date	East North Central					West North Central		
	Chicago	Cincin- nati	Cleve- land	Detroit	Indian- apolis	Kansas City	Minne- apolis	St. Louis
1935—March 15.....	97.1	98.6	96.9	94.2	97.1	98.0	96.4	98.0
July 15.....	97.3	98.5	97.0	94.9	97.4	97.3	96.1	98.3
October 15.....	97.2	99.0	97.4	95.5	98.4	98.0	96.8	98.2
1936—January 15.....	97.7	99.6	97.2	96.5	98.9	98.7	98.0	99.4
April 15.....	96.9	98.2	96.8	96.4	97.9	97.6	96.9	98.3
July 15.....	98.7	100.6	98.6	99.2	98.8	99.3	98.1	99.8
September 15.....	100.5	101.7	100.0	100.1	100.2	100.7	100.1	101.3
December 15.....	99.5	99.9	98.4	99.5	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.7
1937—March 15.....	101.3	102.7	100.5	102.7	101.9	101.7	101.6	101.8
June 15.....	103.6	103.1	102.8	105.3	103.4	102.9	102.7	103.0
September 15.....	105.1	104.4	104.3	106.1	104.4	103.8	104.2	104.1
December 15.....	103.3	102.9	102.9	106.4	103.5	102.6	103.4	102.7
1938—March 15.....	101.1	100.6	101.1	104.2	101.5	100.9	101.5	100.7
June 15.....	102.2	100.5	101.8	103.0	101.1	100.8	101.8	100.4
September 15.....	102.1	100.3	101.9	101.5	101.0	100.3	101.4	100.7
December 15.....	100.8	99.1	101.4	100.7	100.0	99.7	100.9	99.5
1939—March 15.....	99.4	98.2	101.0	99.8	99.3	99.1	100.2	99.0
June 15.....	98.9	97.3	100.8	99.1	98.4	99.0	100.1	97.8
September 15.....	100.7	99.4	101.7	100.2	99.7	100.6	101.2	100.4
December 15.....	99.8	98.2	100.9	99.8	99.6	99.3	101.1	99.1
1940—March 15.....	99.7	98.4	100.7	99.9	99.6	98.3	100.7	99.0
June 15.....	101.4	98.8	101.5	100.9	100.2	98.6	100.8	99.5
September 15.....	100.9	99.9	102.3	100.5	100.7	97.8	100.9	99.7

TABLE 6.—Indexes of Cost of All Goods Purchased By Wage Earners and Lower-Salaried Workers in Each of 33 Large Cities, Mar. 15, 1935, Through Sept. 15, 1940—Con.

Date	South Atlantic								East South Central
	Atlanta	Balti- more	Jackson- ville	Norfolk	Rich- mond	Savan- nah	Wash- ington, D. C.	Bir- ming- ham	
1935—March 15.....	97.5	98.1	97.9	99.5	98.2	98.6	98.6	96.0	
July 15.....	97.6	98.4	98.9	98.9	98.3	98.5	98.7	97.0	
October 15.....	99.8	98.9	99.2	100.1	99.7	100.0	99.4	98.3	
1936—January 15.....	100.3	99.8	100.0	101.1	99.9	100.2	99.9	98.0	
April 15.....	98.3	99.1	98.0	99.0	98.3	98.5	98.6	96.1	
July 15.....	99.9	99.7	100.1	100.0	99.8	100.1	99.8	99.0	
September 15.....	101.1	100.6	100.2	100.9	101.5	100.3	100.5	100.2	
December 15.....	100.9	99.7	100.7	101.2	102.0	100.2	100.4	100.9	
1937—March 15.....	102.2	101.4	102.4	102.1	102.0	101.7	101.9	103.2	
June 15.....	102.8	101.7	102.8	102.2	101.6	102.1	102.4	104.0	
September 15.....	104.3	102.9	103.4	102.9	103.6	103.0	103.3	104.9	
December 15.....	102.6	101.9	102.7	101.8	102.0	101.9	102.2	104.1	
1938—March 15.....	100.1	100.3	100.4	100.1	100.6	100.3	100.1	101.5	
June 15.....	99.2	100.3	100.2	99.0	99.2	99.8	100.1	100.7	
September 15.....	100.0	100.1	100.2	99.0	100.0	99.4	100.1	101.2	
December 15.....	100.0	100.0	99.1	99.0	99.8	99.5	99.7	100.4	
1939—March 15.....	98.8	99.6	98.4	98.4	98.6	98.7	98.9	99.1	
June 15.....	98.0	99.2	98.2	97.3	97.4	98.7	98.5	98.2	
September 15.....	100.1	100.5	100.1	99.5	99.9	100.6	100.3	100.3	
December 15.....	98.7	98.9	99.3	98.5	98.8	99.7	98.9	99.5	
1940—March 15.....	99.5	99.7	98.9	97.7	98.4	100.0	99.6	99.3	
June 15.....	98.5	100.5	100.2	98.5	98.5	100.8	100.1	99.1	
September 15.....	99.4	100.0	101.0	99.0	99.3	101.0	100.0	100.3	

Date	East South Central—Con.		West South Central		Mountain	Pacific			
	Mem- phis	Mobile	Hous- ton	New Orleans	Denver	Los Angeles	Port- land, Oreg.	San Francisco	Seattle
1935—March 15.....	98.5	98.6	97.6	99.4	97.2	98.2	96.4	99.4	97.4
July 15.....	97.7	98.4	96.5	98.4	96.8	95.4	95.5	97.5	95.7
October 15.....	97.6	98.9	97.0	98.9	97.2	95.1	95.7	97.8	95.9
1936—January 15.....	98.7	98.7	97.8	99.3	97.9	96.6	96.8	98.4	97.8
April 15.....	98.4	97.5	96.7	97.3	97.1	95.7	96.2	97.0	96.5
July 15.....	99.7	99.6	98.5	99.7	99.6	97.2	98.2	97.9	97.7
September 15.....	100.7	99.5	99.5	100.4	100.5	99.6	99.3	98.7	99.0
December 15.....	101.0	99.0	99.6	100.5	99.9	99.4	99.4	98.8	99.5
1937—March 15.....	102.7	102.5	101.6	102.4	102.8	103.4	102.0	101.1	102.0
June 15.....	102.9	103.3	101.5	101.5	103.5	102.9	103.0	101.5	102.2
September 15.....	103.5	103.3	103.5	103.0	105.1	104.2	104.7	102.9	103.7
December 15.....	102.5	102.0	103.0	101.6	103.3	103.2	103.2	103.0	103.2
1938—March 15.....	100.4	100.8	101.7	100.4	101.0	101.5	102.7	101.2	102.2
June 15.....	100.1	100.6	101.2	99.1	101.0	101.8	101.7	101.4	101.2
September 15.....	100.4	100.3	101.5	100.3	100.2	101.8	101.6	101.7	101.1
December 15.....	99.5	99.6	101.4	99.9	99.9	102.6	101.7	101.4	101.2
1939—March 15.....	98.5	99.4	100.0	99.4	99.2	101.2	100.7	100.3	100.9
June 15.....	98.1	98.8	100.1	98.7	99.2	100.3	100.5	99.2	100.8
September 15.....	100.4	101.0	101.6	102.0	99.7	101.9	102.1	101.0	102.6
December 15.....	98.9	99.7	101.3	100.4	99.7	100.4	100.9	100.2	100.9
1940—March 15.....	98.5	99.1	100.8	100.9	98.7	100.7	99.7	99.8	101.6
June 15.....	98.4	99.2	100.7	101.1	99.7	100.8	100.7	100.1	101.7
September 15.....	98.8	98.8	101.1	102.2	98.9	101.2	101.5	100.8	101.7

Description of Indexes

An article appearing in the August 1940 issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW presents a summary discussion of the method of preparing these indexes and of their uses in showing time-to-time changes in the cost of goods and services purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers, as well as a discussion of the revision of these indexes completed this spring on the basis of the Bureau's recent study of family expenditures. Reprints of that article are available on request to the Bureau.

The only comparison between cities that can be drawn from the Bureau's indexes is a comparison of the extent of change in living costs in different cities over given periods. Thus, the index of the cost of all items as of September 15, 1940, based on costs in 1935-39 as 100, was 102.3 in Cleveland and 97.8 in Kansas City. A comparison of these two indexes indicates that on September 15, 1940, living costs in Kansas City were 2.2 percent lower than the average for the years 1935-39, but that in Cleveland costs on this date were 2.3 percent higher than the average for the years 1935-39 in that city. This comparison does not indicate that costs on September 15, 1940, were 4.6 percent higher in Cleveland than in Kansas City. In order to secure figures showing a comparison of actual living costs between cities, expenditures serving as the weights for items priced in the different cities would have to be representative of identical levels of living. Differences between the average costs from which the Bureau of Labor Statistics indexes are computed in different cities are due to differences in standards and in purchasing habits in those cities as well as to varying prices for goods of given grades. Differences between the indexes of costs from time to time in the various cities at any particular date are due entirely to differences in the percentage of change in living costs in each city.

The comparison of the cost of the same level of living from one part of the country to another presents serious technical difficulties for which wholly satisfactory techniques have not yet been developed. This is particularly true in attempting to measure differences in living costs from large to very small cities or from urban to rural communities, where consideration must be given not only to differences in such factors as climate and consumption habits but also to differences in housing, the fuels available, and the means of transportation.

ESTIMATED INTERCITY DIFFERENCES IN COSTS OF LIVING, SEPTEMBER 15, 1940

IN MARCH 1935, the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration conducted a study of comparative living costs in 59 cities. The purpose of this study was to determine the

cost of a uniform level of living in these cities at a given time, and how its cost compared from one city to another. Quantity budgets were constructed by the Works Progress Administration to represent the needs of families at two levels of living, the "basic maintenance" level and the "emergency" level. An identical budget for each of these levels of living, with certain adjustments in the fuel, ice, and transportation lists to take account of climatic and other local conditions, was used in each city. The Bureau of Labor Statistics cooperated with the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration in obtaining the prices necessary to compute the costs of the two budgets. Insofar as possible, prices for identical commodities were obtained in each city. Details of this study and a description of the goods and services included in each budget can be found in the report "Intercity Differences in Costs of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities," Research Monograph XII, a copy of which may be obtained from the Division of Research, Work Projects Administration, Washington, D. C.

Between March 1935 and the spring of 1939, no attempt was made to price these budgets. In order to bring the intercity comparison of costs up to date, estimates of the cost of the "maintenance" budget were made, however, for the 31 cities covered by both the Works Progress Administration study and the Bureau of Labor Statistics' studies of changes in the cost of goods purchased by wage earners and lower-salaried workers. By applying the Bureau of Labor Statistics' indexes of living costs, which show changes in costs from time to time, to the Works Progress Administration data on intercity differences in costs in March 1935, approximate intercity comparisons of costs were obtained. Since the cost of living indexes of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are based on a budget weighted differently from the budget used in the Works Progress Administration study, when the two sets of figures were combined, the resulting estimates of intercity differences in costs were merely approximations.

Early in 1939, the Works Progress Administration budgets were, in part, priced again for many of the cities. At this time the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in connection with its study of comparative living costs in 10 small cities,¹ computed the cost of parts of the "maintenance" budget using prices obtained as of December 15, 1938, and February 14, 1939.

The cost of clothing, housefurnishings, fuel and light, and miscellaneous groups were recomputed on the basis of prices of 55 articles of clothing, 16 articles of furniture and furnishings, 5 items of fuel and light, and 37 miscellaneous items on December 15, 1938, and weighted by the quantities provided in the "maintenance" budget. The food-

¹ A study of "Differences in living costs in northern and southern cities" was made at the request of the Wage and Hour Division. The July 1939 Monthly Labor Review carries an article describing the survey.

cost budget was entirely recomputed in terms of the "adequate diet at minimum cost" of the United States Bureau of Home Economics (a somewhat more varied diet than that originally used in the "maintenance" budget).

Average rents in each of the 31 cities were estimated by applying the Bureau's time-to-time indexes of rental costs to the Works Progress Administration's figures for March 1935.

TABLE 7.—Estimated ¹ Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at "Maintenance" Level ² in 31 Large Cities as of Sept. 15, 1940

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House-furnishings	Miscellaneous
Atlanta.....	\$1,333.78	\$478.31	\$161.48	\$285.77	\$87.19	\$30.07	\$290.96
Baltimore.....	1,322.61	465.42	166.32	249.46	102.27	35.55	303.59
Birmingham.....	1,293.07	481.78	171.50	232.31	67.96	31.54	307.98
Boston.....	1,430.78	481.81	169.82	260.49	134.46	32.40	351.80
Buffalo.....	1,305.60	462.43	169.35	241.25	108.89	31.95	291.73
Chicago.....	1,447.19	469.68	159.04	291.17	127.09	31.50	368.71
Cincinnati.....	1,340.72	455.83	177.23	269.03	94.47	34.81	309.35
Cleveland.....	1,404.34	465.53	176.65	285.31	111.14	32.72	332.99
Denver.....	1,286.72	437.84	163.67	238.03	113.10	32.86	301.22
Detroit.....	1,426.12	459.90	167.80	306.43	113.80	31.34	346.85
Houston.....	1,303.49	453.78	160.87	244.82	85.61	34.81	323.60
Indianapolis.....	1,294.40	448.95	159.86	242.87	93.95	32.14	316.63
Jacksonville.....	1,317.11	501.55	149.39	219.23	100.88	32.87	313.19
Kansas City.....	1,237.63	434.53	173.68	208.96	103.95	32.69	283.81
Los Angeles.....	1,327.45	444.66	169.35	242.36	72.05	35.23	363.80
Memphis.....	1,302.03	444.25	171.27	264.18	81.10	34.94	306.29
Minneapolis.....	1,402.25	461.85	162.68	305.80	137.19	32.27	302.46
Mobile.....	1,175.78	467.03	155.55	178.49	76.62	33.41	264.68
New Orleans.....	1,281.63	472.57	162.21	208.09	72.94	36.86	328.96
New York.....	1,508.18	521.46	165.65	309.57	117.32	33.81	360.37
Norfolk.....	1,327.63	476.74	170.48	247.97	91.30	33.81	307.33
Philadelphia.....	1,331.32	469.34	169.14	256.60	100.42	33.45	302.37
Pittsburgh.....	1,385.34	482.54	167.74	287.43	89.90	33.96	323.77
Portland, Maine.....	1,343.11	491.59	163.31	201.23	145.23	32.82	308.93
Portland, Oreg.....	1,321.90	476.22	160.47	191.55	129.23	33.89	330.54
Richmond.....	1,339.39	455.04	167.20	252.92	104.18	34.70	325.35
St. Louis.....	1,385.55	472.74	162.93	283.64	108.90	35.80	321.54
San Francisco.....	1,457.14	486.90	172.47	285.68	84.91	37.15	390.03
Seranton.....	1,370.53	484.03	160.79	265.38	95.06	31.89	333.38
Seattle.....	1,368.76	486.55	171.93	195.62	119.63	34.99	360.04
Washington, D. C.....	1,491.10	484.21	173.19	350.92	113.61	36.16	333.01

¹ See explanation of method given on pages 1561 and 1562.

² See the Works Progress Administration publication "Intercity Differences in Costs of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities," Research Monograph XII, for the items included in the "maintenance" budget.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has prepared approximations for September 15, 1940, by applying the Bureau's indexes of living costs, which show changes in costs from time to time, to the costs estimated by the Bureau as of December 15, 1938, for all items other than food. The "adequate diet at minimum cost" was recalculated for each city as of September 15, 1940, on the basis of 61 foods priced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The attached tables present these approximations. Table 7 shows estimated cost of living for a four-person manual worker's family, at the maintenance level as defined by the Works Progress Administration in 31 large cities, as of the most recent date

for which the Bureau of Labor Statistics has secured prices. Table 8 presents these data as indexes on a base of the cost in Washington, D. C., as of September 15, 1940, as 100.

TABLE 8.—*Estimated*¹ *Indexes of Cost of Living for a 4-Person Manual Worker's Family at "Maintenance" Level,*² *Sept. 15, 1940*

[Washington costs as of Sept. 15, 1940]

City	Total	Food	Clothing	Housing	Fuel, electricity, and ice	House furnish- ings	Miscel- laneous
Atlanta.....	89.4	98.8	93.2	81.4	76.7	83.2	87.4
Baltimore.....	88.7	96.1	96.0	71.1	90.0	98.3	91.2
Birmingham.....	86.7	99.5	99.0	66.2	59.8	87.2	92.5
Boston.....	96.0	99.5	98.1	74.2	118.4	85.6	105.6
Buffalo.....	87.6	95.5	97.8	68.7	95.8	88.4	87.6
Chicago.....	97.1	97.0	91.8	83.0	111.9	87.1	110.7
Cincinnati.....	89.9	94.1	102.3	76.7	83.2	96.3	92.9
Cleveland.....	94.2	96.1	102.0	81.3	97.8	90.5	100.0
Denver.....	86.3	90.4	94.5	67.8	99.6	90.9	90.5
Detroit.....	95.6	95.0	96.9	87.3	100.2	86.7	104.2
Houston.....	87.4	93.7	92.9	69.8	75.4	96.3	97.2
Indianapolis.....	86.8	92.7	92.3	69.2	82.7	88.9	95.1
Jacksonville.....	88.3	103.6	86.3	62.5	88.8	90.9	94.0
Kansas City.....	83.0	89.7	100.3	59.5	91.5	90.4	85.2
Los Angeles.....	89.0	91.8	97.8	69.1	63.4	97.4	109.2
Memphis.....	87.3	91.7	98.9	75.3	71.4	96.6	92.0
Minneapolis.....	94.0	95.4	93.9	87.1	120.8	89.2	90.8
Mobile.....	78.9	96.5	89.8	50.9	67.4	92.4	79.5
New Orleans.....	86.0	97.6	93.7	59.3	64.2	101.9	98.8
New York.....	101.1	107.7	95.6	88.2	103.3	93.5	108.2
Norfolk.....	89.0	98.5	98.4	70.7	80.4	93.5	92.3
Philadelphia.....	89.3	96.9	97.7	73.1	88.4	92.5	90.8
Pittsburgh.....	92.9	99.7	96.9	81.9	79.1	93.9	97.2
Portland, Maine.....	90.1	101.5	94.3	57.3	127.8	90.8	92.8
Portland, Oregon.....	88.7	98.3	92.7	54.6	113.7	93.7	99.3
Richmond.....	89.8	94.0	96.5	72.1	91.7	96.0	97.7
St. Louis.....	92.9	97.6	94.1	80.8	95.9	99.0	96.6
San Francisco.....	97.7	100.6	99.6	81.4	74.7	102.7	117.1
Scranton.....	91.9	100.0	92.8	75.6	83.7	88.2	100.1
Seattle.....	91.8	100.5	99.3	55.7	105.3	96.8	108.1
Washington, D. C.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ See explanation of method on pages 1561 and 1562.

² See the Works Progress Administration publication "Inter-city Differences in Costs of Living in March 1935, 59 Cities," Research Monograph XII, for the items included in the "maintenance" budget.



COST OF LIVING IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES¹

THE principal index numbers of the cost of living (official and unofficial) published in the different countries are given in the following table. A brief discussion of these indexes is presented in earlier issues of this pamphlet.

¹ Table from International Labor Review, Geneva, July 1940, pp. 78-82.

TABLE 9.—Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries¹[Series recalculated by International Labor Office on base 1929=100: ² a=food; b=heating and lighting; c=clothing; d=rent; e=miscellaneous]

Country	Argentina	Australia	Belgium	Brazil	Bulgaria	Burma	Canada	Chile	China	Colombia	Costa Rica
Towns and localities	Buenos Aires	30	59	Rio de Janeiro	12-67	Rangoon	60	Santiago	Shanghai	Bogota	San Jose
Original base (=100)	Oct. 1933	1923-27	1921	1928-29	1914	1931	1926	Mar. 1928	1936	Feb. 1937	1936
Composition of index	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e
1930.....	101	95	104	91	92	(³)	99	99	115	(³)	(³)
1931.....	87	85	93	88	80	100	90	98	112	(³)	(³)
1932.....	78	81	84	88	74	98	81	104	106	(³)	(³)
1933.....	83	78	83	87	68	90	78	130	95	(³)	(³)
1934.....	78	80	79	94	64	87	79	130	95	(³)	(³)
1935.....	83	81	80	99	60	89	79	132	97	(³)	(³)
1936.....	91	83	85	114	57	88	81	144	103	(³)	100
1937.....	93	85	92	123	58	89	83	162	122	100	106
1938.....	92	87	94	128	60	88	84	169	157	113	107
1939.....	93	89	93	-----	62	86	84	171	209	118	108
1939—Mar.....	93	⁴ 89	93	-----	62	83	83	164	-----	126	107
June.....	94	⁴ 89	91	-----	62	89	83	172	181	117	109
Sept.....	93	⁴ 89	91	-----	62	86	85	172	292	115	107
Dec.....	98	⁴ 89	97	-----	63	88	85	180	313	115	107
1940—Mar.....	⁵ 96	⁴ 90	101	-----	65	92	86	181	379	119	105
June.....	-----	-----	-----	-----	⁶ 65	-----	⁶ 86	⁷ 186	⁷ 376	⁷ 119	⁶ 105

Country	Czechoslovakia	Denmark	Egypt	Estonia	Finland	France	Germany ⁸	Great Britain and North Ireland	Greece	Hungary	India	
Towns and localities	Prague	Whole country	Cairo	Tallinn	36	45 dep.	72	24-509	44	Budapest	Bombay	Ahmedabad
Original base (=100)	July 1914	1935	Jan. 1913-July 1914	1913	1935	1930	1913-14	July 1914	Dec. 1914	1913	July 1933-June 1934	Aug. 1926-July 1927
Composition of index	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-d	a-d	a-e
1930.....	98	96	98	89	92	100	96	96	87	91	(²)	90
1931.....	93	⁹ 90	91	86	85	97	88	90	⁹ 100	86	(²)	77
1932.....	92	90	87	80	84	91	78	88	106	83	(²)	78
1933.....	91	92	83	75	82	87	77	85	114	77	(²)	74
1934.....	90	96	84	74	80	83	79	86	116	76	100	73
1935.....	92	99	86	75	91	78	80	87	117	78	100	73
1936.....	93	101	86	84	81	86	81	90	121	82	101	73
1937.....	94	104	85	89	⁹ 86	102	81	94	131	87	106	78
1938.....	99	106	87	93	88	117	82	95	130	88	106	73
1939.....	-----	109	87	95	90	-----	82	96	130	87	106	75
1939—Mar.....	104	106	85	94	¹⁰ 88	⁴ 122	82	93	129	86	103	70
June.....	108	106	85	94	¹⁰ 88	⁴ 123	82	95	129	87	104	74
Sept.....	¹¹ 107	110	87	96	¹⁰ 93	-----	82	101	129	87	106	78
Dec.....	-----	118	91	99	¹⁰ 98	-----	82	106	133	87	113	87
1940—Mar.....	-----	128	91	112	¹⁰ 103	-----	84	109	135	90	110	⁸ 81
June.....	-----	-----	-----	⁶ 113	-----	-----	⁸ 85	⁶ 110	⁶ 140	⁷ 90	-----	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 9.—Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries—Continued

Country	Indo-China	Iran	Ireland	Italy	Japan			Latvia	Lithuania	Luxemburg	Mexico
Towns and localities	Saigon	7	105	50	24	13	Tokyo	Riga	104	9	Mexico
Original base (=100)	1925	May 21, 1936–Mar. 20, 1937	July 1914	June 1928	July 1937	July 1914	July 1914	1930	1913	1914	1934
Composition of index	a, d, e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-c, e	a-e	a-e	a-c	a-c
1930.....	107	(2)	97	97	(3)	(3)	86	100	89	102	(3)
1931.....	93	(2)	91	87	(2)	12 98	75	91	83	91	(2)
1932.....	81	(3)	89	83	(3)	100	75	79	71	79	(2)
1933.....	75	(3)	86	80	(3)	103	80	76	61	79	(2)
1934.....	69	(2)	87	76	(3)	106	82	72	57	76	100
1935.....	69	(3)	89	77	(3)	110	84	73	50	74	108
1936.....	70	100	91	83	(3)	113	88	73	51	75	114
1937.....	83	116	97	91	100	118	96	79	56	79	139
1938.....	95	131	98	98	110	126	110	87	57	81	153
1939.....	97		101		121	135	123	90	60	81	155
1939—Mar.....	4 96	138	4 99	99	116	130	117	86	58	81	
June.....	4 97	139	4 98	102	119	133	122	95	58	81	153
Sept.....	4 96	142	4 98	11 103	124	137	128	91	60	80	156
Dec.....	4 100	141	4 109		131	142	132	89	68	82	155
1940—Mar.....			4 112		139	144	140	95	76	82	14 152
June.....			4 116				7 143	6 99	6 77	7 83	

Country	Netherlands	Netherlands Indies	New Zealand	Norway	Palestine	Peru	Poland	Portugal	Rumania	South Rhodesia	Spain
Towns and localities	Amsterdam	Batavia	4-25	31	3	Lima	Warsaw	Whole country	Bucharest	6	Madrid
Original base (=100)	Oct. 1923–Sept. 1924	Jan. 1929	1926–30	July 1914	Jan. 1922	1913	1928	June 1914	1936	1914	July 1939
Composition of index	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a, b, e	a-e	a-e	a, b, e	a-e	a, b, d	a-e
1930.....	96	(3)	98	97	89	96	92	95	(3)	100	(3)
1931.....	90	(3)	90	92	80	90	82	84	(3)	96	(3)
1932.....	84	12 62	84	90	82	86	74	83	(3)	92	(3)
1933.....	83	(3)	79	89	79	83	67	83	(3)	87	(3)
1934.....	83	(3)	81	89	80	85	62	83	(3)	86	(3)
1935.....	81	12 52	83	91	79	86	60	84	(3)	85	(3)
1936.....	79	12 49	86	93	84	90	58	86	100	85	12 71
1937.....	82	52	92	100	88	96	62	89	108	88	(3)
1938.....	83	53	95	103	85	97	61	86	114	90	(3)
1939.....	84	53	98	104	86	96		81	131	90	
1939—Mar.....	82	10 53	96	102	83	95	60	80	122	90	
June.....	81	10 52	98	103	80	96	61	81	124	10 91	
Sept.....	83	53	99	104	91	97	11 62	81	137	10 90	100
Dec.....	87	54	101	110	94	99		84	149	10 91	107
1940—Mar.....	89	55	4 101	117	4 92	101		82	166	92	
June.....		7 54		7 118		6 102		6 84		6 92	

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 9.—*Indexes of Cost of Living for Specified Periods for the United States and Certain Foreign Countries—Continued*

Country	Sweden	Switzerland	Tunisia	Turkey	Union of South Africa	United States B. L. S.	Uruguay	Yugoslavia	
Towns and localities	49	34	Tunis	Istanbul	9	32-51	Montevideo	Belgrade	3 (Croatia and Slavonia)
Original base (=100)	1935	June 1914	July 1914	Jan.-June 1914	1938	1935-39	1929	1926	July 1914
Composition of index	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-e	a-c, e	a-e
1930.....	97	98	100	92	98	⁹ 97	100	92	92
1931.....	94	93	96	87	94	89	100	87	85
1932.....	⁹ 92	86	83	85	90	80	99	81	77
1933.....	91	81	76	76	87	75	93	79	66
1934.....	91	80	73	75	89	78	93	75	61
1935.....	92	80	69	69	88	80	96	74	60
1936.....	93	81	79	70	88	81	96	74	61
1937.....	95	85	96	71	91	84	98	78	65
1938.....	98	85	111	70	94	82	98	87	69
1939.....	99	86	-----	-----	94	81	103	90	70
1939-Mar.....	99	84	⁴ 114	71	94	81	100	88	69
June.....	⁹ 99	85	⁴ 114	70	94	80	103	89	69
Sept.....	101	86	⁴ 121	71	93	82	104	87	69
Dec.....	105	88	-----	¹³ 72	94	81	107	97	78
1940-Mar.....	109	90	-----	-----	96	81	108	106	87
June.....	-----	⁹ 92	-----	-----	⁹ 97	82	-----	⁹ 109	⁹ 92

¹ Table from International Labour Review, Geneva, July 1940, pp. 78-82.

² Except for series in italics, which are on original base, or recalculated to nearest possible year to 1929.

³ No indexes computed.

⁴ Indexes computed as of February, May, August, and November.

⁵ February.

⁶ May.

⁷ April.

⁸ Territory before 1938.

⁹ New or revised series this year.

¹⁰ Indexes computed as of January, April, July, and October.

¹¹ July.

¹² Average calculated for a period of less than 1 year.

¹³ November.

¹⁴ January.

¹⁵ Corrected figure.

COST OF LIVING AND RETAIL PRICES IN BUENOS AIRES, MAY 1940 ¹

A TYPICAL working class family in Buenos Aires, consisting of a married couple and 3 children under 14 years of age, spent 152.31 pesos ² in May 1940, of which 80.96 pesos (53.2 percent) went for food, 5.81 pesos (3.8 percent) for household expenses, 34.17 pesos (22.4 percent) for lodging, 21.57 pesos (14.2 percent) for clothing, and 9.80 pesos (6.4 percent) for miscellaneous expenses.

¹ Data are from Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores y Culto, Argentine News (Buenos Aires), July 1 and September 1, 1940.

² Average exchange rate of peso, May 1940=29.8 cents.

The composition of the typical family budget is as shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—*Typical Working-Class Family Budget in Buenos Aires*

Item	Unit of measurement	May 1940			Item	Unit of measurement	May 1940		
		Number of units consumed	Price per unit	Total spent			Number of units consumed	Price per unit	Total spent
Bread	Kilo ²	35	Pesos ¹ 0.30	Pesos ¹ 10.50	Milk	Liter	60	Pesos ¹ 0.18	Pesos ¹ 10.80
Potatoes	do	24	.13	3.12	Wine	do	12	.40	4.80
Meat	do	24	.67	16.08	Soda	Siphon Bottle	5	.08	.40
Fruit				2.63	Tobacco	Kilo	.45	16.00	7.20
Greens				4.99	Miscellaneous food items				4.22
Vegetables	Kilo	2.7	.35	.95	Coal	Kilo	36	.10	3.50
Eggs	Dozen	3.5	.95	3.33	Kerosene	Liter	3	.17	.51
Farinaceous foods	Kilo	5.7	.31	1.77	Soap	Kilo	5	.36	1.80
Fish	do	3	.37	1.11	Rent	(⁴)			33.15
Oil	Liter ³	4.5	.86	3.87	Electric light				\$ 1.02
Canned foods	Can	1	.28	.28	Travel	Trip	48	.075	3.60
Cheese	Kilo	.5	.95	.48	Newspapers	Copy	10	.05	.50
Flour	do	2	.18	.36	Barber	Serv-ice	2	.40	.80
Yerba mate	do	2.5	.70	1.75	Sundries				4.90
Sugar	do	3.2	.40	1.28					
Rice	do	1	.40	.40					
Coffee	do	.6	1.06	.64					

¹ Average exchange rate of peso in May 1940=29.8 cents.

² 1 kilo=2.2046 pounds.

³ 1 liter=1.0567 quarts.

⁴ A room 4 x 4.5 meters in size. (A meter is equivalent to 39.37 inches).

⁵ Meter rent and 4 kilowatts.

In table 2, yearly average prices of 20 articles from the preceding list (and one additional item) for 1929 and 1939 are compared with the May 1940 prices.

TABLE 2.—*Average Retail Prices of 21 Items of Household Expenditure in Buenos Aires, Years 1929 and 1939, and May 1940*

Item	Unit of measurement	Price per unit (in pesos ¹)			Item	Unit of measurement	Price per unit (in pesos ¹)		
		1929	1939	May 1940			1929	1939	May 1940
Bread	Kilo ²	0.34	0.31	0.30	Yerba mate	Kilo	1.20	0.70	0.70
Potatoes	do	.16	.16	.13	Sugar	do	.37	.41	.40
Meat	do	.60	.61	.67	Rice	do	.41	.43	.40
Vegetables	do	.40	.41	.35	Coffee	do	1.23	1.11	1.06
Eggs	Dozen	.91	.73	.95	Milk	Liter	.19	.17	.18
Farinaceous products	Kilo	.42	.30	.31	Wine	do	.45	.39	.40
Fish	do	.46	.39	.37	Soda	Siphon bottle	.10	.09	.08
Oil	Liter ³	1.00	.90	.86	Tobacco	Kilo	13.33	16.00	16.00
Jam	Jar	.33	.29		Coal	do	.11	.09	.10
Cheese	Kilo	1.05	.97	.95	Kerosene	Liter	.20	.19	.17
Flour	do	.20	.17	.18					

¹ Average exchange rate of peso for year 1929=95.1 cents; for year 1939=30.9 cents.

² 1 kilo=2.2046 pounds.

³ 1 liter=1.0567 quarts.

LOW-COST GOVERNMENT RESTAURANT IN VENEZUELA, 1939-40¹

THE low-cost restaurant opened in Caracas, Venezuela, on May 19, 1939, by the Ministry of Health and Social Assistance, sold during its first year of operation a total of 239,413 tickets for single meals, an average of 775 meals per day (the restaurant was closed 56 days, including Sundays). The average does not present a true picture of operation of the restaurant at the close of the year (May 19, 1940), as the number of patrons showed an increase throughout the year.

Meals are served at breakfast and dinner hours, for 75 centimos² and offer a varied menu, selected in accordance with established hygienic standards. The majority of the patrons belong to the worker group and the liberal professions. From December 5, 1939, a school-lunch service has been operating, serving daily about 100 meals, including a cup of milk, to school children. A service of adequate nutrition for pregnant women has also been maintained for some time. In addition to these regular services, the restaurant has at times furnished meals to groups of school children or other groups visiting the capital.

¹ Venezuela, Ministerio de Sanidad y Asistencia Social, S. A. S., Caracas, May 31, 1940. For an account of low-cost restaurants in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Venezuela, see *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1940, pp. 150-153 (also reprinted in *Labor Conditions in Latin America*, No. 3).

² Average open-market exchange rate of Venezuelan bolivar (100 centimos), May 1940=28.7 cents.

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR OCTOBER 1940

Total Nonagricultural Employment

THE increases in nonagricultural employment, which have been shown each month since February, raised the estimated total in October to nearly 37,000,000, the maximum recorded since 1929. The gain between September and October of 275,000, exclusive of the expansion in the armed forces, was one of the largest increases shown in October of any of the past 12 years. Employment in manufacturing industries as a whole showed a contraseasonal rise from September to October of 2.2 percent, or 187,000 wage earners, in contrast to a seasonally expected decline of 0.1 percent, or 8,500 workers. Wholesale and retail firms reported a seasonal gain of 57,000 employees and 56,000 additional workers were employed on construction projects. In the Federal, State, and local government service, exclusive of the armed forces, employment increased by 23,000, transportation and public-utility companies added 4,000 workers, and mines reported a gain of 5,000. In the finance, service, and miscellaneous group there was a decline of approximately 60,000, due in large measure to seasonal recessions in resort hotel, recreation, and amusement activities.

Compared with October of last year, employment in nonagricultural industries had increased by more than 1,180,000. Manufacturing industries accounted for approximately 500,000 of this gain, construction projects for 180,000, and trade for about 70,000. Employment in the transportation and utility group was approximately 46,000 greater this year than last, and in the finance, service, and miscellaneous group approximately 35,000 higher. In the group of mining industries employment decreased by about 19,000 over the year interval.

The above figures do not include emergency employment which increased over the month by 94,000 as a result of the following changes: Increases of 75,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration and 24,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps, and a decrease of 5,000 on the out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration.

Industrial and Business Employment

Employment gains were reported by 73 of the 90 manufacturing industries for which indexes have been regularly computed each month and pay-roll increases by 71. Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed, 6 showed more employees in October than in September and 10 showed larger pay rolls.

The rise of 2.2 percent in factory employment indicated the addition of more than 187,000 to the number of workers, where a decline of 0.1 percent or 8,500 wage earners would be ordinarily expected. Weekly wages in manufacturing industries rose by 4.0 percent or more than \$8,000,000, this being about 2½ times as large as the expected seasonal increase of 1.6 percent or \$3,300,000. The gains which were more pronounced in the durable-goods group of manufacturing industries than in the nondurable partly reflected the increased activity resulting from the defense program. The durable-goods group as a whole showed an employment increase of 4.2 percent, while the nondurable-goods group showed a gain of only 0.5 percent. The only durable-goods industries reporting employment declines were the tin-can and marble-granite-slate industries and these were of a seasonal character.

Defense industries in which particular interest has been centered in recent months showed employment gains as follows: Aircraft (9,800 wage earners), shipbuilding (5,100), machine tools (2,800), engines (2,600), and aluminum manufactures (1,200). Since 1937, the most recent peak year, these industries increased their working forces by 197,000 wage earners or more than 100 percent. Other industries stimulated directly or indirectly by war orders and showing large gains over the month were cotton goods (15,100), foundries and machine shops (13,100), electrical machinery (10,900), woolen and worsted goods (9,400), and blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills (8,500).

There was a larger-than-seasonal employment increase in the automobile industry (11.6 percent, or 52,000 workers), reflecting a further expansion in production activities. Seasonal expansion was shown in beet sugar (13,600), cottonseed oil (7,300), and confectionery (3,600). Substantial employment gains were also reported by factories manufacturing brass, bronze, and copper products (5,400), wirework (5,100), and furniture (3,800). Most of the manufacturing industries which reported declines usually show employment recessions in October. Among them were canning (56,300), men's clothing (5,800), millinery (3,500), beverages (3,300), and shoes (2,800).

Of the 67 new industries for which separate pay-roll tabulations are now being prepared, 52 showed more men at work and larger pay rolls

in October than in September. The percentage gains in employment in some of these industries affected by defense activity were as follows: Instruments and apparatus, professional, scientific, commercial, and industrial (6.3), abrasives (6.5), ammunition (9.4), firearms (5.5), screw-machine products (4.9), optical goods (3.3), machine-tool accessories (3.2), and fire extinguishers, chemical (7.3).

Retail stores reported a seasonal employment increase of 1.7 percent, primarily because of large gains in department stores (3.2 percent), variety stores (3.3 percent), and establishments selling women's ready-to-wear clothing (5.9 percent), men's and boys' clothing (4.2 percent), family clothing (5.6 percent), and jewelry (4.0 percent).

Wholesale firms showed a seasonal rise of 1 percent in employment, the more pronounced increases being in the following lines: Farm products (12.2 percent), farm supplies (4.3 percent), iron and steel scrap (3.6 percent), jewelry and optical goods (3.0 percent), metals and minerals (2.2 percent), and paper and paper products (2.0 percent). Assemblers and country buyers and agents and brokers increased employment by 9.5 percent and 2.5 percent, respectively, and the introduction of new models was reflected in the automotive group by an employment gain of 2.8 percent. The principal employment decline was a loss of 3.5 percent in chemicals, drugs, and allied products.

The seasonal employment increase of 2.1 percent in bituminous-coal mining continued the gains of the past 3 months, and more than offset the declines in other fields of mining.

Employment in private building construction increased 3.9 percent and weekly pay rolls 6.5 percent from September to October, the largest October gains shown in any of the past 8 years for which figures have been compiled by the Bureau. Compared with October 1939, employment was 23.5 percent higher and pay rolls 32.3 percent larger. General contractors reported an increase of 3.5 percent in employment and special trades contractors an increase of 4.1 percent from September to October. Ten of the 15 special building trades surveyed showed increased employment as follows: Painting and decorating (18.2 percent), excavating (9.6 percent), building insulation (7.7 percent), plastering (6.4 percent), masonry (4.0 percent), roofing and sheet metal (3.7 percent), electrical contracting (2.5 percent), plumbing and heating (2.3 percent), glazing (1.0 percent), and tile and terrazzo (0.7 percent). Employment declines were reported in structural steel erection (4.2 percent), carpentering (3.4 percent), ornamental metal work (2.8 percent), wood flooring (2.6 percent), and elevator installation and repairing (1.5 percent).

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission for class I steam railroads showed an employment gain of 0.6 percent

between September and October, the total number employed in October being 1,072,590. Corresponding pay-roll figures for October were not available when this report was prepared. For September they were \$165,479,902, a decrease of \$6,162,282 since August. On a daily basis, the pay rolls were about the same for both months.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 39.3 in October, an increase of 1.3 percent from September. The corresponding average hourly earnings were 67.3 cents, an increase of 0.2 percent from the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory workers were \$27.13, an increase of 1.8 percent since September.

Wage-rate increases were reported by 185 of the 33,330 manufacturing establishments which supplied employment information in October. These increases averaged 7.0 percent and affected 39,316 of the 6,218,782 wage earners covered. Among them were 11 smelting and refining firms with 5,777 workers affected, 18 sawmills (3,489 workers), 17 foundries and machine shops (2,502 workers), 3 woolen mills (1,478 workers), 8 electrical machinery plants (1,770 workers), 3 furniture plants (1,291 workers), 10 paper and pulp mills (1,355 workers), and 4 steel mills (1,029 workers). Two plants manufacturing steamfittings and two manufacturing aircraft reported increases affecting nearly 8,000 workers.

Of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries regularly surveyed 9 reported increases in average weekly earnings. Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 6 showed gains in average hours worked per week and 5 reported increases in average hourly earnings. Out of a total sample of 66,071 nonmanufacturing establishments (excluding building-construction firms) employing 2,001,093 employees in October, 29 establishments reported wage increases to 13,985 workers. These increases averaged 4.7 percent. Among them were 13 metal mines with 12,205 workers affected and 6 street railways with 1,215 workers affected.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and non-manufacturing industries.

Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for October 1940 are given in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, for water transportation, and for class I railroads. Percentage changes over the month and year intervals are also given.

TABLE 1.—Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in all Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, October 1940 (Preliminary Figures)

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, October 1940	Percentage change from—		Index, October 1940	Percentage change from—		Average in October 1940	Percentage change from—	
		Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939		Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939		Sep-tember 1940	Octo-ber 1939
All manufacturing industries combined ¹	(1923-25 = 100) 110.1	+2.2	+6.2	(1923-25 = 100) 114.5	+4.0	+12.6	27.13	+1.8	+6.0
Class I steam railroads ²	60.0	+6	+1.6	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
Coal mining:	(1929 = 100)			(1929 = 100)					
Anthracite ⁴	49.8	—8	—4.0	32.2	—18.2	—38.3	21.26	—17.5	—35.7
Bituminous ⁴	89.5	+2.1	—3.7	84.3	+1.3	—13.6	25.06	—7	—10.3
Metalliferous mining	72.6	+1	+11.1	71.5	+2.8	+12.7	30.81	+2.8	+1.5
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	48.4	—9	+9	46.2	—1	+1.3	23.95	+8	+4
Crude-petroleum production	61.8	—1.9	—3.8	58.3	+2	—8	34.73	+2.2	+3.1
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph ⁵	78.9	—1	+3.1	102.9	+1.1	+5.9	⁶ 32.03	+1.2	+2.6
Electric light and power ⁵	92.2	—5	+2.1	107.4	+1.5	+5.3	⁶ 35.56	+2.0	+3.2
Street railways and busses ⁷	68.5	—1	—1.4	70.9	—8	—4	⁶ 33.89	—8	+1.1
Trade:									
Wholesale ⁸	91.8	+1.0	—7	80.5	—7	+3	⁶ 30.55	—1.7	+1.0
Retail ⁸	94.4	+1.7	+2.9	85.8	+8	+3.1	⁶ 20.90	—9	+2
Hotels (year-round) ⁸	93.1	+1.7	+2	83.6	+2.1	+1.7	⁶ 15.57	+4	+1.5
Laundries ⁴	100.1	—1.7	+4.2	88.0	—2.1	+4.9	18.13	—4	+6
Dyeing and cleaning ⁴	109.6	—3	+4.4	82.7	—3.4	+7.0	20.64	—3.1	+2.5
Brokerage	(⁹)	—1.9	—13.2	(⁹)	+3	—14.2	⁶ 36.79	+2.3	—1.1
Insurance	(⁹)	—(10)	+1.9	(⁹)	+3	+2.4	⁶ 36.03	+4	+5
Building construction	(⁹)	+3.9	+23.5	(⁹)	+6.5	+32.3	33.84	+2.5	+7.0
Water transportation ¹¹	80.0	+5	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)	(⁹)

¹ Revised indexes; adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.² Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.³ Not available.⁴ Indexes adjusted to 1935 Census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, Employment and Pay Rolls.⁵ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.⁶ Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the pamphlet dated earlier than January 1938, or in the Monthly Labor Review dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.⁷ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.⁸ Indexes adjusted to 1933 Census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet or February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review.⁹ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.¹⁰ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.¹¹ Based on estimates prepared by the United States Maritime Commission.

Public Employment

Employment on construction projects financed from appropriations to regular Federal agencies rose to 477,000 in the month ending October 15. As in the preceding month the gain can be attributed largely to national defense activity. Approximately 82,000 additional workers were employed on building construction projects and 7,000 were added to the force engaged in building naval vessels.

These gains and a decrease of 1,000 on other types of work resulted in a net gain of 88,000 on projects financed from regular funds. Pay-roll disbursements on all types of projects totaled \$51,727,000, an increase of \$8,931,000 over the preceding month.

Contractors on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority added approximately 2,000 building-trades workers to their pay rolls during the month ending October 15. Wage-payments of \$5,577,000 to the 53,000 men employed were \$349,000 greater than in September.

Employment on construction projects financed from Public Works Administration funds dropped to 38,000 in the month ending October 15, a decrease of 12,000 from September. Pay-roll disbursements of \$4,192,000 were \$1,091,000 less than in the preceding month.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation remained at about the same level. Wage payments to the 2,000 workers employed during the month ending October 15 were \$216,000.

Work relief projects of the Work Projects Administration furnished employment to 1,712,000 persons in October as compared with 1,637,000 in September. Pay-roll disbursements of \$99,370,000 were \$8,463,000 greater than in the preceding month. In addition to these, approximately 72,000 workers were employed on Federal agency projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Wage earners on these projects were paid \$3,373,000.

Starting the new school year with 22,000 students in September the National Youth Administration increased employment on the student-work program to 341,000 in October. Pay-roll disbursements for the month amounted to \$2,161,000. On the out-of-school work program, however, employment decreased 5,000. The 236,000 young persons on the program were paid \$4,943,000.

With the beginning of an enlistment period employment in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps increased 24,000 in October. Pay-roll disbursements to the 318,000 persons employed were \$14,059,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government employment increases were reported in the executive, judicial, and military branches and a decrease in the legislative branch. Of the 1,086,000 employees in the executive service, 149,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 937,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees on the pay roll of the United States Government who are engaged on construction projects, and whose period of employment terminates as the project is completed) were 11 percent of the total

number of employees in the executive service. A large part of the increase in the executive service was accounted for by an estimated 21,000 employees of selective service boards. In addition, executive service employment increases were reported in the War and Navy Departments and the Department of Justice. Decreases were reported in the Departments of Agriculture and Commerce, the Post Office Department, and the Department of the Interior.

State-financed road projects furnished employment for 11,000 additional workers in October. Of the 208,000 on the pay roll, 68,000 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 140,000 on maintenance. Pay rolls of \$15,514,000 were \$1,336,000 more than in September.

A summary of employment and pay-roll data in the regular Federal services and on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Employment and Pay Rolls in Regular Federal Services and on Projects Financed Wholly or Partially from Federal Funds, October 1940 (Preliminary Figures)*

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	October 1940	September 1940	Percentage change	October 1940	September 1940	Percentage change
Federal Services:						
Executive ¹	1,086,171	1,058,639	+2.6	\$166,485,603	\$159,587,376	+4.5
Judicial.....	2,841	2,746	+3.5	656,398	646,424	+1.5
Legislative.....	5,892	5,938	-.8	1,299,002	1,298,842	(?)
Military.....	733,220	633,589	+15.7	47,902,197	38,532,284	+24.3
Construction projects:						
Financed by regular Federal appropriations.....	477,397	389,615	+22.5	51,727,448	42,796,030	+20.9
USHA low-rent housing.....	52,555	50,829	+3.4	5,577,218	5,228,033	+6.7
Financed by PWA ⁴	37,824	50,051	-24.4	4,191,769	5,282,875	-20.7
Financed by RFC ⁵	1,832	1,845	-.7	215,858	205,252	+5.2
Federal agency projects financed by						
Works Projects Administration.....	71,674	69,156	+3.6	3,373,145	3,102,015	+8.7
Projects operated by WPA.....	1,711,674	1,636,824	+4.6	99,370,355	90,907,258	+9.3
National Youth Administration:						
Student work program.....	341,199	21,776	+1466.9	2,160,889	95,276	+2168.0
Out-of-school program.....	236,312	241,060	-2.0	4,943,231	4,827,087	+2.4
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	318,453	294,622	-8.1	14,058,799	13,523,515	+4.0

¹ Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 159,960 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$22,909,162 for October 1940, and 150,139 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$20,028,413 for September 1940.

² Revised.

³ Increase less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 percent.

⁴ Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 5,429 wage earners and \$570,344 pay roll for October 1940; 5,785 wage earners and \$567,057 pay roll for September 1940, covering Public Works Administration Projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 30,177 wage earners and \$3,402,104 pay roll for October 1940; 41,738 wage earners and \$4,468,447 pay roll for September 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

⁵ Includes 756 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$94,921 for October 1940; 795 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$96,927 for September 1940 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR SEPTEMBER 1940

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pamphlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of September 1940, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Estimates of Nonagricultural Employment

The estimates of "Total nonagricultural employment," given on the first line of table 1, represents the number of persons engaged in gainful work in the United States in nonagricultural industries, including proprietors and firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers. The series described as "Employees in nonagricultural establishments," does not include proprietors, self-employed persons, and domestic or casual workers. Neither set of figures includes persons employed on WPA or NYA projects for enrollees in CCC camps. The estimates for "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown separately for each of seven major industry groups. Tables giving figures for each group, by months, for the period from January 1929 to date are available on request.

The figures represent the number of persons working at any time during the week ending nearest the middle of each month. The totals for the United States have been adjusted to conform to the figures shown by the 1930 Census of Occupations for the number of nonagricultural "gainful workers" less the number shown to have been unemployed for 1 week or more at the time of the census. Separate estimates for "Employees in nonagricultural establishments" are shown in table 2 for each of the 48 States and the District of Columbia for August and September 1940 and September 1939. Tables showing monthly figures for each State from January 1938 to date are available on request. The State figures do not include the armed forces of the United States nor employees on merchant vessels. Certain adjustments have been made in the United States estimates which cannot be made on a State basis, and for this reason the total of the State estimates will not agree exactly with the United States figures even if allowance is made for military, naval, and maritime employment. These estimates are based in large part on industrial censuses and on regular reports of employers to the United States Bureau of

Labor Statistics and to other Government agencies, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission. Data derived from employers' quarterly reports in connection with old-age and survivors' insurance, and employers' monthly reports in connection with unemployment compensation have been used extensively as a check on estimates derived from other sources, and in some industries they have provided the most reliable information available.

TABLE 1.—*Estimates of Total Nonagricultural Employment, by Major Groups*

[In thousands]

Industrial group	September 1940 (preliminary)	August 1940	Change August to September 1940	September 1939	Change September 1939 to September 1940
Total nonagricultural employment ¹	36, 651	36, 029	+622	35, 450	+1, 201
Employees in nonagricultural establishments ²	30, 499	29, 884	+615	29, 298	+1, 201
Manufacturing.....	10, 184	9, 878	+306	9, 586	+598
Mining.....	850	839	+11	823	+27
Construction.....	1, 462	1, 432	+30	1, 399	+63
Transportation and public utilities.....	3, 076	3, 039	+37	2, 993	+83
Trade.....	6, 244	6, 087	+157	6, 161	+83
Finance, service, and miscellaneous.....	4, 252	4, 221	+31	4, 209	+43
Federal, State, and local government, including armed forces ³	4, 431	4, 388	+43	4, 127	+304

¹ Includes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers.

² Does not include proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, and domestic workers.

³ Not including National Guard now in active service.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Number of Employees in Nonagricultural Establishments, by States

[Excludes proprietors, firm members, self-employed persons, casual workers, domestic workers, the armed forces of the United States, and employees on merchant vessels]

[In thousands]

Geographic division and State	September 1940 (preliminary)	August 1940	Change August to September 1940		September 1939	Change September 1939 to September 1940	
			Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
New England	2,568	2,525	+43	+1.8	2,466	+102	+4.2
Maine.....	198	198	0	(1)	198	0	-.1
New Hampshire.....	132	133	-1	-.3	131	+1	+1.9
Vermont.....	80	79	+1	+1.4	75	+5	+6.7
Massachusetts.....	1,333	1,308	+25	+2.0	1,295	+38	+3.0
Rhode Island.....	233	228	+5	+2.2	225	+8	+3.7
Connecticut.....	592	579	+13	+2.4	542	+50	+9.3
Middle Atlantic	7,828	7,681	+145	+1.9	7,524	+302	+4.0
New York.....	3,909	3,836	+73	+1.9	3,862	+47	+1.2
New Jersey.....	1,217	1,190	+27	+2.3	1,113	+104	+9.4
Pennsylvania.....	2,700	2,655	+45	+1.7	2,549	+151	+5.9
East North Central	6,893	6,704	+189	+2.8	6,566	+327	+5.0
Ohio.....	1,786	1,753	+33	+1.8	1,713	+73	+4.2
Indiana.....	803	779	+24	+3.2	755	+48	+6.4
Illinois.....	2,253	2,230	+23	+1.0	2,156	+97	+4.5
Michigan.....	1,406	1,308	+98	+7.4	1,315	+91	+6.9
Wisconsin.....	645	634	+11	+1.8	627	+18	+2.8
West North Central	2,394	2,350	+44	+1.9	2,365	+29	+1.2
Minnesota.....	542	532	+10	+2.0	533	+9	+1.7
Iowa.....	410	406	+4	+1.1	407	+3	+1.7
Missouri.....	777	754	+23	+3.0	768	+9	+1.1
North Dakota.....	80	80	0	0	80	0	0
South Dakota.....	85	85	0	0	84	+1	+1.7
Nebraska.....	204	203	+1	+1.7	203	+1	+1.5
Kansas.....	296	290	+6	+2.0	290	+6	+2.0
South Atlantic	3,514	3,438	+76	+2.2	3,364	+150	+4.4
Delaware.....	78	75	+3	+3.8	71	+7	+9.6
Maryland.....	521	515	+6	+1.0	493	+28	+5.7
District of Columbia.....	358	342	+16	+4.8	323	+35	+11.0
Virginia.....	494	483	+11	+2.2	480	+14	+2.8
West Virginia.....	373	369	+4	+1.9	362	+11	+2.9
North Carolina.....	606	598	+8	+1.4	600	+6	+1.0
South Carolina.....	284	276	+8	+3.0	271	+13	+4.9
Georgia.....	467	456	+11	+2.4	454	+13	+2.9
Florida.....	333	324	+9	+2.5	310	+23	+7.2
East South Central	1,382	1,352	+30	+2.1	1,330	+52	+3.9
Kentucky.....	363	358	+5	+1.4	360	+3	+1.9
Tennessee.....	470	454	+16	+3.4	435	+35	+8.1
Alabama.....	366	359	+7	+1.9	347	+19	+5.4
Mississippi.....	183	181	+2	+1.8	188	-5	-2.7
West South Central	1,828	1,794	+34	+1.9	1,813	+15	+1.8
Arkansas.....	178	175	+3	+1.9	182	-4	-2.2
Louisiana.....	378	368	+10	+2.9	365	+13	+3.8
Oklahoma.....	293	288	+5	+1.6	294	-1	-.6
Texas.....	979	963	+16	+1.7	972	+7	+1.8
Mountain	788	780	+8	+1.1	767	+21	+2.8
Montana.....	114	115	-1	-.4	111	+3	+2.5
Idaho.....	87	86	+1	+1.8	87	0	0
Wyoming.....	54	54	0	0	53	+1	+1.6
Colorado.....	230	226	+4	+1.9	222	+8	+3.8
New Mexico.....	68	68	0	0	68	0	0
Arizona.....	88	86	+2	+2.6	85	+3	+3.6
Utah.....	114	112	+2	+1.7	110	+4	+3.7
Nevada.....	33	33	0	0	31	+2	+7.1
Pacific	2,472	2,465	+7	+1.3	2,406	+68	+2.7
Washington.....	448	431	+17	+4.0	435	+13	+2.8
Oregon.....	248	240	+8	+3.1	242	+6	+2.3
California.....	1,776	1,794	-18	-1.0	1,729	+47	+2.7

1 Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for 90 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; water transportation; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on water transportation are based on estimates prepared by the Maritime Commission, and those on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission. They are presented in the foregoing summary.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923–25 as 100 and are adjusted to 1937 census data. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 manufacturing industries. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. A complete employment survey of the aircraft industry was made for August 1940. On the basis of this survey the indexes of employment and pay rolls for this industry, the affected groups, and “all manufacturing” have been revised from January 1939 to date. The revised indexes are given in table 9.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale and retail trade, dyeing and cleaning, and insurance, to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and non-metallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

The indexes for retail trade have been adjusted to conform in general with the 1935 Census of Retail Distribution and are weighted by lines of trade. For the public utilities they have been adjusted to the 1937 Census of Electrical Industries, for wholesale trade to the 1933 census, and for coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning to the 1935 censuses.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

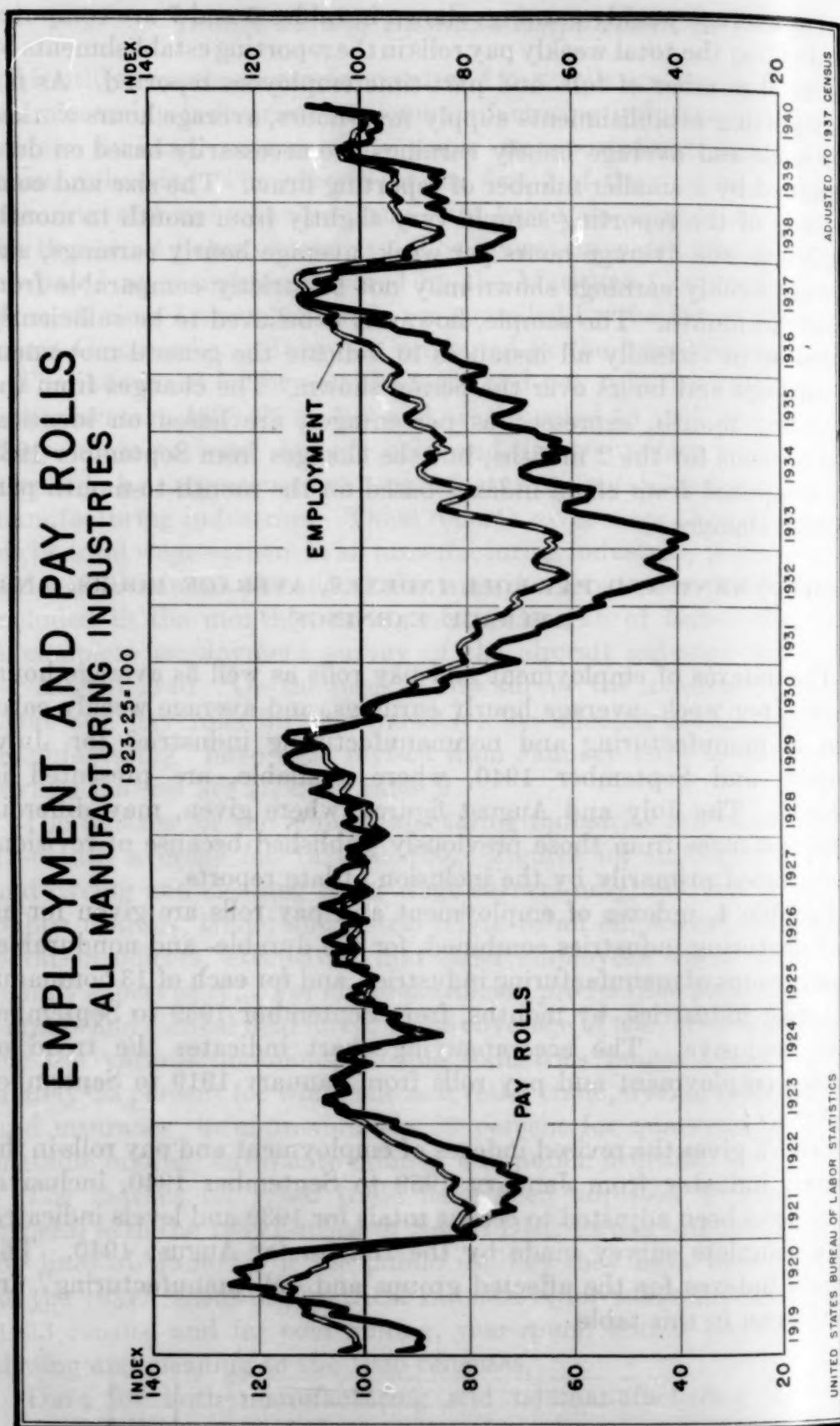
The average weekly earnings shown in tables 6 and 7 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample vary slightly from month to month. Therefore, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movement of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from September 1939 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS

The indexes of employment and pay rolls as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries for July, August, and September 1940, where available, are presented in table 3. The July and August figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports.

In table 4, indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined, for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of 13 nonmanufacturing industries, by months, from September 1939 to September 1940, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to September 1940.

Table 5 gives the revised indexes of employment and pay rolls in the aircraft industry from January 1939 to September 1940, inclusive. They have been adjusted to census totals for 1939 and levels indicated by a complete survey made by the Bureau for August 1940. The revised indexes for the affected groups and "all manufacturing" are also shown in this table.



*Use of Average Hourly Earnings in "Escalator" Clauses*¹

Average hourly earnings of wage earners, such as those shown in table 3, have been compiled regularly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics since 1932. These averages are published for the use of those who wish either to compare the average earnings of wage earners in different industries or to study the changes in average earnings over a period of time.

Certain characteristics of the average earnings should be indicated. The average of the actual earnings of wage earners as a group may change from one period to another for either of two reasons: (1) By reason of changes in the wages paid or (2) by reason of changes in the composition of the group of wage earners actually at work in different periods. As an example of the latter cause of change, it is evident that if, from one month to the next, the number of wage earners employed in a high-wage industry increases proportionally more than employment generally has increased, the average of actual earnings for the group as a whole will increase. This increase might take place even though there were no changes whatsoever in the earnings of any wage earner in any one of the establishments. It is apparent, therefore, that the Bureau's averages reflect both changes in the actual hourly rates paid as well as changes in the composition of the wage earners in the group. The averages contained in table 3 for all manufacturing, for durable goods, for nondurable goods, and for the various subgroups of industries, such as "iron and steel and their products," reflect both types of influence upon hourly earnings; and they measure the average of the actual earnings of the wage earners actually at work in each respective period.

To an increasing extent use is being made of these average hourly earnings figures in so-called "escalator" clauses in Government contracts. These are designed to protect contractors from losses that might arise from general wage increases over which they could exercise no control. A number of contracts extending over many months have been written recently with clauses that provide for increased payments to the contractor in case of increases in the average of the hourly earnings in the durable-goods industries.

It should be pointed out that the characteristics of the Bureau's average hourly earnings figures, as described above, make it desirable to use these averages for other than their designed purpose with a certain degree of caution. The purpose for which they were compiled

¹ Reprint from the August Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlet.

limits their usefulness, especially in July and August, as a measure of change in labor rates. In these months the averages show a seasonal movement unrelated to rates of pay. For example, the average hourly earnings figure in the durable-goods industries dropped from 73.2 cents in June to 72.7 cents in July. This drop was due not to a general decline in wages in this period but almost entirely to the fact that employment in the automobile industry declined sharply as the result of model changes. This industry is a high-wage industry in which the average hourly earnings are about 95 cents an hour. Between June and July employment in the automobile industry dropped from 104.9 to 82.3. This relative decline, of a purely seasonable character, in the number of highly paid automobile workers was very largely responsible for the decline of half a cent noted in the average hourly earnings in durable-goods industries.

By way of illustration of the problem involved, it would be possible to construct an index of earnings that was unrelated to changes in the relative occupational composition of the group workers actually at work. For example, giving the averages for the several industries the same weights in July and August that they had in June and considering only the influence of changes in average earnings in each industry, we find no change in the rate of earnings from June to July and approximately the same percentage change as is shown by the published figures from July to August. This means that from June to August, the currently published figures show a slight decline over this 3-month interval whereas the series computed with constant weights shows a small gain.

It is not within the province of the Bureau to indicate the type of average that was contemplated by the contracting parties in the contracts already drawn; least of all can the method of compiling an average be changed. It is obvious however that in incorporating any statistical series in legal documents careful consideration should be given to the purpose for which the figures were originally compiled and to their relevance to some new purpose. The officials of the Bureau are at the disposal of all those who wish to apply any of the Bureau's series to administrative problems. Carefully interpreted and applied, these data have a present usefulness far greater than was imagined in the past. Their appropriate adaptation to new uses involves on the one hand a careful consideration by the Bureau of the purposes of the contracting parties; on the other, consultation with the Bureau to discover whether the new figures as they stand meet the purposes in mind.

TABLE 3.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries

MANUFACTURING

Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25=100, and are adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures for all industries except automobiles. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request.

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings ¹			Average hours worked per week ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940
All manufacturing¹	107.7	103.8	99.7	110.0	104.0	96.8	\$26.54	\$26.10	\$25.25	38.8	38.4	37.3	Cents 67.1	Cents 66.8	Cents 66.7
Durable goods ²	105.5	99.8	95.9	114.0	105.5	96.5	30.57	29.98	28.52	40.2	39.7	37.9	73.7	73.1	72.7
Nondurable goods	109.7	107.6	105.3	105.6	102.4	97.1	22.20	22.10	21.87	37.5	37.2	36.7	61.1	61.3	61.5
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	113.5	110.7	106.2	118.0	113.5	104.3	30.60	30.24	28.89	39.2	38.8	37.2	77.9	77.7	77.7
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	123.2	122.1	119.0	128.2	124.8	116.2	32.93	32.25	30.75	38.5	38.1	36.4	85.7	84.8	84.7
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets	118.1	114.9	109.1	139.6	138.7	111.6	28.43	29.02	24.60	40.9	41.5	35.4	69.4	70.0	69.5
Cast-iron pipe	81.9	80.2	78.2	79.3	76.3	74.9	23.02	22.72	22.97	38.3	37.8	37.9	60.2	59.9	60.3
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	107.0	101.5	98.8	100.7	93.2	90.6	24.49	23.91	23.81	39.8	38.8	38.6	62.4	62.6	62.4
Forgings, iron and steel	76.7	72.8	67.8	91.9	86.4	77.8	32.51	32.22	31.09	40.9	40.6	39.4	79.6	79.3	79.1
Hardware	100.6	95.8	82.9	112.9	106.5	85.7	27.64	27.29	25.45	39.8	39.1	37.3	69.3	69.7	68.3
Plumbers' supplies	88.5	86.7	84.3	80.8	79.9	74.2	26.57	26.97	25.63	38.3	38.7	36.6	70.0	69.7	70.1
Stamped and enameled ware	175.8	164.4	152.9	200.6	182.6	166.7	26.96	26.21	25.08	40.6	39.9	38.6	66.0	65.7	66.5
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	94.3	89.7	84.2	91.1	84.6	78.0	29.34	28.80	28.25	41.2	40.3	39.8	71.5	71.6	71.1
Stoves	101.2	97.7	91.8	97.4	89.2	81.3	27.54	26.09	25.20	40.4	38.6	37.3	68.2	67.7	67.7
Structural and ornamental metalwork	83.4	79.9	76.0	74.8	72.9	67.6	28.99	29.51	28.87	39.5	40.1	39.0	73.5	73.6	73.8
Tin cans and other tinware	105.2	108.1	105.9	116.8	121.9	113.4	25.21	25.61	24.38	39.6	40.4	39.1	64.0	63.9	62.7
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	96.9	95.6	94.0	104.0	95.6	91.7	26.33	25.22	24.60	41.4	39.8	39.0	63.8	63.4	63.1
Wirework	162.0	146.1	136.0	185.5	163.4	140.5	28.69	28.00	25.87	40.1	39.6	37.1	71.5	70.8	69.7
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	133.1	119.2	116.1	137.9	131.0	125.7	31.22	30.67	30.29	41.8	41.2	40.5	74.6	74.5	74.4
Agricultural implements (including tractors)	133.5	131.2	130.6	156.2	152.0	148.9	31.17	30.87	30.42	39.1	38.6	38.3	79.9	80.1	79.5
Cash registers, adding machines, and calculating machines	131.8	128.7	129.6	140.3	135.9	135.6	33.38	33.11	32.92	40.2	40.2	40.0	83.1	82.7	82.7
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	111.2	106.6	103.8	131.4	123.7	118.1	31.50	30.92	30.14	41.3	40.7	39.8	76.4	76.3	76.2
Engines, turbines, water wheels, and wind-mills	182.2	174.8	167.5	249.4	238.5	223.8	35.93	35.81	35.05	44.7	44.1	43.7	80.5	81.3	80.3

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tember 1940	August 1940	July 1940
Durable goods—Continued															
Machinery—Continued.															
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	103.4	100.5	98.0	105.4	101.3	96.3	\$30.31	\$30.12	\$29.33	41.2	41.0	40.1	73.4	73.3	73.0
Machine tools.....	248.0	237.5	234.8	332.3	302.9	307.8	37.27	35.48	36.45	48.4	46.7	47.5	76.0	76.0	76.8
Radios and phonographs.....	139.5	157.1	143.4	161.5	149.8	138.5	24.59	23.49	23.90	40.2	38.5	38.5	62.1	61.1	62.1
Textile machinery and parts.....	78.1	76.4	77.0	76.4	73.5	73.4	26.84	26.30	26.13	40.4	39.6	39.2	66.9	66.6	66.8
Typewriters and parts.....	122.5	118.0	114.3	137.2	125.4	116.9	27.43	26.04	25.05	42.1	39.7	38.5	65.2	65.6	65.1
Transportation equipment¹	126.7	104.9	99.7	141.3	115.7	98.9	35.60	35.41	31.88	40.0	39.9	36.2	89.0	89.7	89.1
Aircraft ²	3,764.3	3,478.6	3,146.6	4,211.9	3,727.4	3,124.6	32.56	31.79	30.48	44.9	43.8	42.0	73.8	73.9	73.8
Automobiles.....	111.8	85.4	82.3	124.9	96.1	80.5	35.60	37.13	32.26	38.6	38.8	34.0	95.4	95.8	94.9
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	53.6	51.2	50.6	49.5	47.2	42.7	28.94	28.86	26.43	37.9	38.4	35.0	76.0	75.3	75.5
Locomotives.....	35.6	33.0	31.1	36.6	32.8	31.3	31.57	30.47	30.99	40.2	39.0	39.1	78.5	78.2	79.2
Shipbuilding.....	188.1	181.1	170.2	227.5	211.6	193.4	36.08	34.86	34.03	40.9	40.3	39.3	87.8	86.7	86.2
Nonferrous metals and their products	119.8	113.8	107.0	127.9	117.0	105.9	29.38	28.18	27.12	41.5	40.1	38.6	71.0	70.3	70.1
Aluminum manufactures.....	195.3	189.2	181.1	239.3	224.5	194.1	29.75	28.91	26.05	41.1	40.1	36.5	72.4	72.0	71.4
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	146.5	138.2	129.6	177.5	160.7	146.2	32.91	31.55	30.73	42.7	41.4	40.4	77.4	76.5	76.2
Clocks and watches and time-recording de- vices.....	100.5	95.2	90.1	108.6	101.4	91.1	23.98	23.67	22.42	40.3	39.6	37.6	59.4	59.7	59.5
Jewelry.....	102.6	96.3	93.2	90.5	82.9	75.8	24.64	23.32	22.49	41.9	39.5	38.1	58.4	58.0	58.1
Lighting equipment.....	99.7	87.7	76.8	90.2	76.5	64.4	28.26	27.17	26.13	40.8	39.1	37.7	69.3	69.4	69.4
Silverware and plated ware.....	72.8	68.7	63.3	70.0	60.4	51.5	27.69	25.34	23.44	42.4	38.9	36.4	65.8	64.8	64.6
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	92.4	91.4	89.0	91.8	88.8	86.8	27.79	27.17	27.29	39.1	38.2	38.2	71.8	71.2	71.5
Lumber and allied products	73.4	71.3	68.2	71.3	63.3	60.7	31.06	30.81	19.37	39.9	39.4	37.0	52.5	52.6	51.9
Furniture.....	94.7	91.1	87.7	87.6	81.8	74.3	22.07	21.49	20.28	40.6	39.5	37.1	55.0	54.8	55.0
Lumber.....	66.8	64.2	62.6	54.8	52.4	48.8	22.82	22.59	21.66	41.7	41.5	39.7	54.6	54.2	54.4
Millwork.....	66.3	64.9	61.5	63.8	62.2	53.9	19.85	19.79	18.02	39.2	38.9	36.4	50.7	50.9	49.6
Sawmills.....	86.8	84.5	82.4	79.5	76.7	71.1	25.27	24.81	23.49	37.4	37.0	35.5	67.2	66.8	66.5
Stone, clay, and glass products	64.7	64.4	64.1	53.9	53.6	51.8	21.62	21.44	20.95	38.1	37.7	36.8	56.5	56.6	56.6
Brick, tile, and terra cotta ³	75.1	74.5	72.0	76.8	72.6	68.4	23.18	22.94	22.12	40.1	38.8	37.9	72.4	71.6	71.5
Cement.....	109.3	106.9	103.3	120.7	116.0	105.2	26.90	26.56	24.91	36.0	35.9	33.8	75.0	74.3	74.2
Glass.....	48.7	48.6	47.5	37.6	36.7	34.2	26.69	26.06	24.97	36.9	36.4	34.7	72.7	72.7	72.7
Marble, granite, slate, and other products ⁴	93.5	90.9	87.3	85.0	79.8	71.0	22.96	22.17	20.53	37.2	36.0	34.6	63.6	64.2	63.7
Pottery.....															

Non-durable goods

Textiles and their products.....

Non-durable goods													
Textiles and their products.													
Fabrics.....	102.7	99.7	94.5	92.7	87.4	77.7	18.09	17.64	16.85	35.7	34.9	33.8	51.4
Carpets and rugs.....	92.8	90.4	88.0	84.8	80.9	76.4	17.57	17.15	16.71	36.4	35.7	34.8	51.2
Cotton goods.....	75.8	71.4	70.8	65.6	58.7	54.0	23.90	22.78	21.11	35.6	35.7	31.7	48.6
Cotton small wares.....	91.7	88.7	88.0	85.3	80.0	78.2	15.11	14.67	14.43	36.4	35.5	34.9	41.2
Dyeing and finishing textiles.....	79.0	76.7	74.0	77.3	72.6	69.2	19.01	18.36	18.12	38.2	37.1	37.0	49.5
Hats, fur-felt.....	124.8	121.5	116.1	106.5	101.8	95.0	20.81	20.53	20.05	38.2	37.1	36.4	54.6
Hosiery.....	138.6	136.1	131.2	146.9	143.6	129.2	18.87	18.82	17.57	33.8	33.9	33.7	55.6
Knitted underwear.....	73.2	70.3	66.1	64.3	59.9	53.8	18.41	17.88	17.07	38.0	37.0	35.9	47.2
Knitted underwear.....	73.8	73.1	72.4	68.0	65.5	63.0	15.59	15.24	14.76	36.0	35.0	34.3	43.4
Knitted cloth.....	153.6	147.5	136.3	138.3	129.4	117.1	20.25	19.73	19.34	40.7	39.7	39.0	49.3
Silk and rayon goods.....	63.8	63.0	60.5	51.2	51.4	46.6	16.53	16.79	15.86	36.1	36.8	34.4	45.5
Woolen and worsted goods.....	88.8	86.9	83.3	82.1	77.9	73.9	21.26	20.63	20.47	37.6	36.5	36.4	56.4
Wearing apparel.....	120.7	116.7	104.9	102.6	94.9	73.7	19.51	18.95	17.26	34.4	33.5	31.9	55.8
Clothing, men's.....	107.8	107.4	103.2	82.9	81.8	76.7	19.73	19.64	19.29	32.7	32.8	32.2	59.8
Clothing, women's.....	171.1	164.3	137.3	141.5	129.6	89.3	22.15	21.12	17.33	35.1	34.0	31.6	56.7
Corsets and allied garments.....	112.1	109.4	102.5	122.9	108.6	99.7	18.22	16.49	16.22	37.8	33.7	34.2	48.5
Men's furnishings.....	122.4	116.6	106.8	120.7	113.9	97.7	14.81	13.48	13.48	34.2	33.8	31.7	42.2
Men's furnishings.....	87.1	73.3	54.5	93.8	64.7	36.5	31.87	26.14	19.84	39.8	34.7	29.2	64.8
Millinery.....	121.5	117.1	110.6	108.2	102.1	87.8	14.25	13.96	12.71	34.3	33.6	32.0	40.9
Shirts and collars.....	90.8	92.0	91.6	74.6	77.0	76.4	19.37	19.86	19.80	34.8	35.8	35.9	55.3
Leather and its manufactures.....	89.7	91.1	90.7	72.0	75.0	74.6	18.32	18.94	18.92	34.3	35.5	35.7	53.3
Boots and shoes.....	79.9	80.3	80.1	76.8	77.0	76.0	24.09	23.96	23.69	37.1	37.3	36.7	64.6
Leather.....	147.4	145.8	135.4	139.5	139.0	131.3	23.48	24.17	24.33	40.3	40.4	39.9	61.5
Food and kindred products.....	146.6	146.6	147.1	140.8	140.1	142.1	26.60	26.40	26.69	41.6	41.2	41.8	64.1
Baking.....	283.1	299.1	300.3	331.3	357.1	352.8	34.34	34.99	34.41	39.2	40.1	39.3	88.1
Beverages.....	99.8	103.2	104.6	88.4	89.4	89.9	23.30	22.79	22.52	47.3	47.0	46.9	47.3
Butter.....	208.6	203.6	179.1	231.3	248.3	146.0	16.61	18.18	15.73	38.6	39.6	36.3	43.6
Canning and preserving.....	96.1	79.8	73.6	98.1	77.1	69.2	20.10	19.01	18.48	40.3	36.7	35.7	51.9
Confectionery.....	80.7	79.7	80.1	81.3	76.4	75.8	27.04	25.74	25.49	43.7	41.8	41.8	60.8
Flour.....	81.2	91.1	92.1	69.9	78.0	78.1	29.84	29.71	29.41	45.6	46.6	45.9	63.1
Ice cream.....	108.0	106.8	111.1	112.6	112.3	117.6	27.38	27.57	27.76	39.6	39.6	40.3	68.9
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	101.8	89.2	87.7	116.2	87.5	55.5	29.42	25.40	24.88	42.3	38.4	35.8	71.8
Sugar, beet.....	96.2	98.3	101.1	82.3	85.4	91.4	24.07	24.44	25.45	36.7	37.3	39.3	64.7
Sugar refining, cane.....	65.8	64.4	62.4	65.9	62.3	62.3	18.42	17.79	18.36	37.8	36.1	36.8	49.2
Tobacco manufactures.....	56.1	55.4	56.1	67.1	64.7	66.5	19.32	18.86	19.16	35.7	34.6	35.4	54.3
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	66.9	65.5	63.2	65.7	61.9	61.7	18.24	17.57	18.19	38.0	36.2	36.9	49.4
Cigars and cigarettes.....	116.2	115.2	114.7	113.3	110.9	111.2	29.18	28.73	29.00	38.4	38.2	38.4	79.1
Paper and printing.....	120.3	117.5	116.0	134.3	130.7	127.7	22.19	22.10	21.87	39.8	39.4	38.9	56.4
Boxes, paper.....	116.7	116.9	117.1	124.2	124.8	126.3	26.13	26.14	26.47	39.9	40.4	40.8	64.9
Paper and pulp.....	99.7	99.7	99.0	87.8	85.9	86.7	30.55	28.93	30.35	38.5	37.9	38.4	80.5
Printing and publishing.....	116.0	113.8	113.5	111.0	106.3	106.2	38.59	37.66	37.72	39.0	35.7	35.5	103.3
Book and job.....													
Newspapers and periodicals.....													

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued

MANUFACTURING—Continued

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings			Average hours worked per week			Average hourly earnings		
	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940	Sep- tem- ber 1940	August 1940	July 1940
<i>Nondurable goods—Continued</i>															
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products.....	122.6	119.4	118.5	138.2	134.4	133.0	\$30.08	\$30.16	\$30.12	39.0	38.7	38.5	Cents 77.3	Cents 77.8	Cents 78.3
Petroleum refining.....	122.6	122.7	122.9	139.3	137.4	136.6	35.43	34.94	34.73	36.1	35.8	35.3	98.3	97.7	98.6
Other than petroleum refining.....	122.6	118.6	117.4	137.8	133.5	131.9	28.31	28.34	28.27	40.0	39.8	39.7	70.0	70.7	70.9
Chemicals.....	143.4	141.6	140.4	170.9	169.3	167.2	32.06	32.18	31.95	39.8	39.9	39.7	80.7	80.6	80.4
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....	81.0	82.4	85.3	78.1	83.4	83.4	15.25	14.67	15.15	43.1	41.8	42.4	33.5	33.8	33.9
Druggists' preparations.....	117.5	114.4	113.4	132.4	127.1	124.5	25.53	25.16	24.94	39.0	39.5	40.1	61.5	61.5	61.2
Explosives.....	147.8	139.9	132.7	175.4	172.1	164.8	32.74	33.94	34.67	39.0	40.6	40.9	84.0	83.6	84.7
Fertilizers.....	96.6	81.1	79.8	85.4	70.7	69.7	16.59	16.14	16.05	36.1	34.6	35.2	45.9	46.6	45.6
Paints and varnishes.....	126.1	123.5	124.6	135.6	132.4	132.4	29.40	29.28	29.13	40.8	40.6	40.4	72.2	72.0	72.1
Rayon and allied products.....	311.7	307.7	306.9	327.7	318.0	314.7	26.99	26.53	26.32	39.6	39.4	38.9	68.2	67.2	67.6
Soap.....	82.4	83.6	81.3	107.0	101.8	99.9	30.60	28.68	28.77	43.2	40.3	40.4	70.9	71.2	71.2
Rubber products.....	89.5	85.9	83.5	95.8	87.7	85.2	39.15	27.81	27.76	37.5	36.3	35.7	78.0	77.9	78.5
Rubber boots and shoes.....	56.1	54.6	54.0	59.5	56.7	51.2	24.38	23.86	21.77	39.2	38.3	35.7	62.3	62.3	60.9
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	72.7	70.5	69.3	84.8	76.3	77.4	34.10	31.64	32.66	35.1	33.0	33.8	97.2	96.0	97.1
Rubber goods, other.....	152.7	143.9	137.8	152.9	142.1	131.6	24.43	24.07	23.25	39.7	39.0	37.7	61.7	62.1	62.2

NONMANUFACTURING

[Indices are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Coal mining:	50.2	50.3	50.8	39.3	33.1	36.5	\$25.77	\$21.63	\$23.63	28.4	24.2	26.5	92.9	91.8	91.8
Anthracite.....	88.3	86.6	84.9	83.0	82.5	75.2	25.01	25.32	23.36	28.8	28.5	26.6	87.5	88.7	88.0
Bituminous.....	72.6	71.5	71.0	69.6	68.5	63.7	29.99	27.95	27.95	41.2	41.2	38.7	72.7	73.1	72.4
Metallic mining.....	49.0	48.5	48.1	46.6	45.2	43.5	23.70	22.57	22.57	41.6	40.9	39.7	56.8	56.7	56.9
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	63.1	63.6	63.7	57.4	59.0	59.1	33.31	33.69	33.97	36.6	38.1	38.2	89.2	87.6	87.4
Crude-petroleum production.....	78.9	79.0	78.8	100.8	100.4	101.3	31.43	31.23	31.56	39.4	39.3	39.5	80.1	79.8	80.4
Public utilities:	93.1	93.0	92.2	105.7	108.1	105.8	34.58	35.39	34.96	38.3	40.0	45.8	90.5	88.5	88.7
Telephone and telegraph.....	68.4	68.4	68.4	71.3	70.4	70.0	34.08	33.66	33.62	46.5	46.0	45.8	72.2	72.2	72.4
Electric light and power.....															
Street railways and busses.....															

Trade: Wholesale & Retail

Trade:	Wholesale # 12	Retail # 10	Food # 10	General merchandising # 10	Apparel # 10	Furniture # 10	Automotive # 10	Lumber # 10	Hotels (year-round) # 13	Laundries #	Dyeing and cleaning #	Brokers # 14	Insurance # 14	Building construction # 14
	91.1	92.8	103.6	99.3	87.8	76.0	85.2	78.3	91.1	101.8	110.0	-3.2	-5.5	+2.9
	88.7	89.1	103.0	90.1	73.1	74.6	86.1	76.0	90.3	102.8	106.7	-3.3	-2.2	+5.2
	81.0	81.5	95.9	90.6	79.4	68.0	77.4	75.6	81.3	89.8	85.6	-1.8	-1.3	+4.1
	82.6	82.3	84.0	82.3	70.8	66.6	82.3	71.9	80.5	90.5	80.0	-3.5	-1.1	+5.2
	78.7	78.3	81.5	82.3	68.4	65.9	79.6	72.4	80.7	90.5	78.9	-5.7	-1.3	+6.7
	30.87	21.16	23.55	17.65	21.20	25.55	26.89	26.87	15.44	18.12	21.09	35.7	36.13	32.92
	30.32	21.35	23.63	17.65	21.91	28.03	27.35	26.47	15.46	18.09	20.13	35.18	36.10	32.47
	30.36	21.71	23.84	18.29	22.04	28.00	27.35	26.64	15.42	17.96	20.13	36.34	36.45	31.78
	41.7	43.2	43.8	38.9	38.4	44.3	47.7	43.3	46.7	42.8	44.2	(15)	(15)	34.8
	41.2	43.1	43.8	38.1	38.8	44.1	47.6	43.0	46.7	43.0	42.9	(15)	(15)	34.1
	41.0	43.0	43.9	38.4	38.8	43.8	47.1	42.8	46.7	43.0	42.5	(15)	(15)	33.6
	74.0	53.7	52.0	45.7	54.5	69.4	56.5	63.0	33.3	42.5	48.9	(15)	(15)	94.7
	73.6	54.1	52.1	47.1	55.6	68.3	57.6	62.5	32.9	42.2	48.1	(15)	(15)	95.6
	74.0	54.9	52.0	47.6	55.6	69.9	60.6	62.5	32.9	42.1	48.6	(15)	(15)	94.7

¹ Revised series. Mimeographed sheets giving averages by years, 1932 to 1938, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to September 1939, inclusive, available on request.

Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than average weekly earnings, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

² Revised employment and pay roll indexes—Adjusted on basis of a complete employment survey of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for August 1940. Not comparable with previously published indexes from January 1939 to date.

Comparable figures for this period given in table 5.

³ Average weekly earnings, average hours, and average hourly earnings not comparable with those previously published due to expansion of the reporting sample. Comparable June weekly earnings are \$20.97, 37.0 hours, and 56.4 cents, respectively.

⁴ Average weekly earnings and average hourly earnings not comparable with those previously published due to expansion of the reporting sample. Comparable June weekly earnings and hourly earnings are \$25.45 and 72.9 cents, respectively.

⁵ Average hourly earnings not comparable with those previously published due to expansion of the reporting sample. Comparable June hourly earnings are 70.9 cents.

⁶ Average weekly earnings not comparable with those previously published due to expansion of the reporting sample. Comparable June weekly earnings are \$13.10.

⁷ Average weekly earnings not comparable with those previously published due to expansion of the reporting sample. Comparable June weekly earnings are \$22.63.

⁸ Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet Employment and Pay Rolls.

⁹ Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938, as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. In addition, the average hours and hourly earnings for retail trade from January 1940 to date are not comparable with the previously published 1939 averages because of a change in method of weighting.

¹⁰ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Indexes for retail furniture have been revised back to January 1936 since publication of the July 1940 pamphlet. Comparable series for earlier months available on request.

¹¹ Covers street-railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

¹² Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of the pamphlet Employment and Pay Rolls.

¹³ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

¹⁴ Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

¹⁵ Not available.

TABLE 4.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing¹ and Non-manufacturing² Industries, September 1939 to September 1940, Inclusive

Industry	Employment													
	1939					1940								
	Av.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Manufacturing														
All industries.....	96.9	100.3	103.7	103.9	104.2	101.5	101.5	100.9	99.7	99.1	99.6	99.7	103.8	107.7
Durable goods ³	87.9	89.8	96.2	98.3	100.2	97.6	96.7	96.6	96.2	96.7	97.3	95.9	99.8	105.5
Nondurable goods ⁴	105.5	110.2	110.8	109.2	108.0	105.3	106.1	105.1	103.0	101.4	101.7	103.3	107.6	109.7
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining ⁵	50.6	49.4	51.9	51.3	51.0	51.5	52.0	52.6	51.6	52.2	50.2	50.8	50.3	50.2
Bituminous-coal mining ⁵	78.6	85.4	93.0	94.9	92.6	91.8	91.7	89.7	86.2	85.1	83.8	84.9	86.6	88.3
Metalliferous mining.....	62.7	62.9	65.3	66.5	67.3	66.4	66.3	66.2	67.7	69.2	70.3	71.0	71.5	72.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	44.6	47.9	48.0	47.1	44.0	37.8	38.3	41.0	44.5	46.9	47.9	48.1	48.5	49.0
Crude-petroleum production.....	65.8	65.0	64.3	63.8	63.8	63.2	63.0	63.2	63.1	63.3	63.8	63.7	63.6	63.1
Telephone and telegraph ⁶	75.8	76.4	76.5	76.1	75.8	76.1	75.9	76.0	76.7	77.3	77.8	78.8	79.0	78.9
Electric light and power ⁶	89.0	90.6	90.4	90.3	90.1	89.1	89.2	89.3	90.0	90.6	91.2	92.2	93.0	93.1
Street railways and busses ^{6,7}	69.0	69.2	69.5	69.3	69.0	68.8	68.7	68.2	68.3	68.4	68.5	68.4	68.4	68.4
Wholesale trade.....	89.2	90.5	92.4	92.1	92.2	90.6	90.2	90.5	89.3	88.9	89.6	89.2	90.1	91.1
Retail trade ⁶	89.8	90.5	91.7	93.3	104.2	87.7	87.0	91.1	89.8	91.2	91.9	89.1	88.7	92.8
Year-round hotels ⁸	92.0	91.3	92.9	91.8	90.8	91.3	92.1	92.0	92.7	93.4	92.0	90.3	90.3	91.1
Laundries ⁸	95.9	97.8	96.0	95.6	95.6	96.0	95.8	96.2	97.2	99.1	102.1	102.5	102.8	101.8
Dyeing and cleaning ⁸	101.3	105.2	105.1	97.8	97.4	94.0	93.7	99.5	104.5	108.7	112.6	108.2	106.7	110.0
Pay rolls														
Manufacturing														
All industries.....	90.8	93.9	101.7	101.7	103.9	98.4	97.9	98.4	96.5	96.4	98.1	96.8	104.0	110.0
Durable goods ³	85.3	87.9	99.8	101.1	104.8	98.4	96.9	97.8	97.5	97.8	100.4	96.5	105.5	114.0
Nondurable goods ⁴	97.0	100.5	103.9	102.4	102.8	98.4	99.1	99.0	95.4	94.9	95.6	97.1	102.4	105.6
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining ⁵	39.5	40.1	52.2	42.0	26.6	52.5	32.9	38.4	36.3	40.0	40.6	36.5	33.1	39.3
Bituminous-coal mining ⁵	69.9	80.2	97.6	96.3	84.3	87.0	87.0	78.3	72.2	75.3	73.9	75.2	82.5	83.0
Metalliferous mining.....	56.0	55.1	63.4	63.9	65.0	63.6	64.2	63.2	63.5	65.7	65.4	63.7	68.5	69.6
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	38.7	42.7	45.6	42.9	39.2	29.6	30.8	34.1	38.1	42.7	43.9	43.5	45.2	46.6
Crude-petroleum production.....	61.0	60.8	58.8	59.6	59.2	58.4	59.0	58.4	59.0	58.7	58.8	59.1	59.0	57.4
Telephone and telegraph ⁶	95.6	96.9	97.2	96.4	97.4	97.4	96.9	98.1	98.7	98.8	100.0	101.3	100.4	100.8
Electric light and power ⁶	100.4	102.2	102.0	102.5	102.4	101.6	102.2	102.3	103.3	104.2	104.8	105.8	108.1	105.7
Street railways and busses ^{6,7}	69.5	69.2	71.2	69.4	69.8	69.0	71.5	69.5	69.2	69.2	70.5	70.0	70.4	71.3
Wholesale trade.....	76.6	78.0	80.3	79.0	79.1	77.1	77.1	77.8	77.4	77.4	78.4	78.3	78.7	81.0
Retail trade ⁶	80.8	80.9	83.2	83.6	91.8	79.9	79.1	82.0	82.3	83.4	84.8	82.6	81.5	85.0
Year-round hotels ⁸	81.2	80.4	82.2	81.8	81.1	81.1	82.7	81.8	83.2	83.0	82.0	80.5	80.7	81.3
Laundries ⁸	83.1	84.5	83.9	82.9	83.7	83.4	83.1	84.1	85.6	88.5	92.4	90.0	90.5	89.8
Dyeing and cleaning ⁸	73.6	78.3	77.3	70.8	69.9	65.5	64.4	72.7	79.6	85.4	89.6	80.0	78.9	85.6

¹ 3-year average 1923-25=100—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures. See table 5 for further revisions.² 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5 and 6.³ Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.⁴ Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.⁵ Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of pamphlet.⁶ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in Employment and Pay Rolls pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.⁷ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

TABLE 5.—*Revised Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in the Aircraft Industry, the Transportation Equipment Group, the Durable-Goods Group, and "All Manufacturing," January 1939 to September 1940, Inclusive*

[Revised to conform with census averages for 1939 and leads indicated by a complete survey of the aircraft industry made by the Bureau for August 1940. 1923-25=100]

Year and month	Aircraft		Transportation equipment group		Durable-goods group		All manufacturing	
	Employment index	Pay-roll index	Employment index	Pay-roll index	Employment index	Pay-roll index	Employment index	Pay-roll index
1939:								
January.....	899.5	911.2	96.6	93.2	82.3	76.0	92.3	83.7
February.....	974.7	976.9	96.9	91.7	83.3	77.7	93.6	86.0
March.....	1,006.5	1,017.5	96.6	91.9	84.1	79.4	94.3	87.6
April.....	1,137.8	1,107.5	96.3	94.5	84.8	79.5	94.1	85.5
May.....	1,260.6	1,227.7	91.5	87.7	84.0	78.9	93.0	85.0
June.....	1,378.9	1,397.3	91.2	89.4	84.7	80.8	93.4	86.5
July.....	1,491.5	1,455.8	80.4	77.2	83.0	76.1	93.5	84.4
August.....	1,520.4	1,519.9	75.8	79.0	84.0	81.6	96.3	89.8
September.....	1,591.3	1,515.8	97.7	100.3	89.8	87.9	100.3	93.9
October.....	1,703.5	1,702.5	106.1	110.8	96.2	99.8	103.7	101.7
November.....	1,931.5	1,955.8	103.9	106.7	98.3	101.1	103.9	101.7
December.....	2,100.0	2,046.5	117.6	125.4	100.2	104.8	104.2	103.9
Average.....	1,416.4	1,402.9	95.9	95.7	87.9	85.3	96.9	90.8
1940:								
January.....	2,274.6	2,197.0	116.7	110.8	97.6	98.4	101.5	98.4
February.....	2,302.6	2,183.9	116.1	120.1	96.7	96.9	101.5	97.9
March.....	2,379.4	2,344.3	118.5	125.9	96.6	97.8	100.9	98.4
April.....	2,474.3	2,415.0	116.9	124.3	96.2	97.5	99.7	96.5
May.....	2,676.4	2,601.5	116.7	118.5	96.7	97.8	99.1	96.4
June.....	2,913.5	2,968.2	114.3	121.0	97.3	100.4	99.6	98.1
July.....	3,146.6	3,124.6	99.7	98.9	95.9	96.5	99.7	96.8
August.....	3,478.6	3,727.4	104.9	115.7	99.8	105.5	103.8	104.0
September.....	3,764.3	4,211.9	126.7	141.3	105.5	114.0	107.7	110.0

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in August and September 1940 is made in table 6 for 13 metropolitan areas, each of which had a population of 500,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas having a population of 100,000 or over are not included. Footnotes to the table specify which cities are excluded. Data concerning them have been prepared in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 3, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more according to the 1930 Census of Population.

TABLE 6.—*Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in August and September 1940, by Principal Metropolitan Areas*

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments September 1940	Number on pay roll September 1940	Percentage change from August 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) September 1940	Percentage change from August 1940
New York ¹	13, 688	729, 731	+4.4	\$21, 234, 410	+5.6
Chicago ²	4, 393	494, 950	+2.0	14, 296, 433	+2.6
Philadelphia ³	2, 463	250, 869	+4.0	7, 131, 973	+4.9
Detroit	1, 636	361, 107	+19.7	12, 949, 352	+19.1
Los Angeles ⁴	3, 096	201, 341	+2.6	6, 118, 242	+3.5
Cleveland	1, 277	143, 329	+4.7	4, 302, 564	+3.7
St. Louis	1, 385	135, 932	+5.7	3, 383, 082	+4.8
Baltimore	1, 137	123, 953	+2.8	3, 303, 476	+6.5
Boston ⁵	3, 014	198, 686	+2.5	5, 210, 023	+4.0
Pittsburgh	1, 330	228, 089	+2.0	6, 995, 646	+2.1
San Francisco ⁶	1, 729	98, 579	+1.2	3, 048, 244	-.1
Buffalo	790	96, 516	+5.1	2, 831, 063	+6.7
Milwaukee	979	111, 791	+3.3	3, 264, 334	+3.1

¹ Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, or Paterson, N. J., or Yonkers, N. Y.

² Does not include Gary, Ind.

³ Does not include Camden, N. J.

⁴ Does not include Long Beach, Calif.

⁵ Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, or Somerville, Mass.

⁶ Does not include Oakland, Calif.

WAGE-RATE CHANGES IN AMERICAN INDUSTRIES

The following table gives information concerning wage-rate adjustments occurring during the month ending September 15, 1940, as shown by reports received from manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments which supply employment data to this Bureau.

As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry and, furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage-rate changes, these figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring in manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries.

TABLE 7.—Wage-Rate Changes Reported by Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Establishments During Month Ending September 15, 1940¹

Group and industry	Establishments			Employees			Average percentage change in wage rates of employees receiving—	
	Total number reporting	Number reporting increases	Number reporting decreases	Total number covered	Number receiving increases	Number receiving decreases	In-creases	De-creases
All manufacturing.....	27, 274	130	-----	5, 424, 758	31, 946	-----	6. 7	-----
Iron and steel group.....	2, 250	15	-----	787, 589	2, 960	-----	8. 9	-----
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	327	4	-----	458, 500	1, 557	-----	8. 5	-----
Machinery group.....	3, 492	18	-----	786, 330	1, 773	-----	7. 1	-----
Foundries and machine shops.....	2, 283	17	-----	287, 275	1, 693	-----	7. 0	-----
Transportation equipment group.....	600	3	-----	625, 590	492	-----	8. 0	-----
Nonferrous metals group.....	829	4	-----	174, 746	583	-----	3. 7	-----
Lumber and allied products group.....	2, 079	18	-----	276, 256	3, 751	-----	5. 0	-----
Millwork.....	506	6	-----	38, 913	1, 375	-----	5. 0	-----
Sawmills.....	777	8	-----	139, 147	1, 530	-----	5. 3	-----
Stone, clay, and glass group.....	1, 228	7	-----	159, 911	672	-----	5. 9	-----
Fabrics group.....	2, 956	5	-----	859, 412	571	-----	7. 4	-----
Food group.....	4, 543	16	-----	499, 360	3, 267	-----	8. 8	-----
Beet sugar.....	80	5	-----	8, 673	2, 430	-----	9. 6	-----
Paper and printing group.....	3, 480	22	-----	313, 228	6, 450	-----	4. 4	-----
Paper boxes.....	669	3	-----	43, 670	82	-----	3. 0	-----
Paper and pulp.....	435	8	-----	127, 102	5, 070	-----	4. 0	-----
Book and job printing.....	1, 629	5	-----	79, 418	52	-----	7. 1	-----
Chemical group.....	1, 646	14	-----	256, 835	10, 792	-----	7. 4	-----
Paints and varnishes.....	523	4	-----	22, 538	74	-----	4. 9	-----
All nonmanufacturing (except building construction).....	65, 024	62	5	1, 934, 219	6, 495	104	6. 7	10. 4
Metalliferous mining.....	291	35	-----	49, 987	2, 529	-----	9. 3	-----
Street railways and busses.....	269	4	-----	91, 103	2, 054	-----	1. 6	-----
Wholesale trade.....	10, 773	5	-----	233, 822	16	-----	9. 8	-----
Retail trade.....	37, 812	13	-----	690, 626	1, 827	-----	8. 8	-----
Brokerage.....	1, 142	-----	5	17, 002	-----	104	-----	10. 4

¹ As the Bureau's survey does not cover all establishments in an industry, and furthermore, as some firms may have failed to report wage changes, the figures should not be construed as representing the total number of wage changes occurring. Figures are not given for some industries to avoid disclosure of information concerning individual establishments. They are, however, included, where practicable, in "all manufacturing," in "all nonmanufacturing," and in the various industry groups.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

Consumer Problems

Consumer shopping habits by income and occupational groups. By Perham C. Nahl. Stillwater, Okla., Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, School of Commerce, 1940. 60 pp., charts; mimeographed. (Market research study No. 3.)

The survey was based upon a 10-percent sample of the families in the town of Stillwater, or about 275 families.

Sources of supplementary materials for courses in consumer education. By Paul L. Salsgiver. Cincinnati, South-Western Publishing Co., 1940. 61 pp. (Monograph 50.)

An evaluation of consumer agencies and the services, including publications, available from them.

The volume of consumer installment credit, 1929-1938. By Duncan McC. Holt-Hausen, Malcolm L. Merriam, Rolf Nugent. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1940. 12 pp., charts. (Bull. 79.)

In the introduction to the report it is claimed that the figures presented constitute the first consistent series of monthly and annual estimates of the volume of consumer installment credit for the period studied.

Cooperative Movement

Cooperation and nationality. By George W. Russell (AE). New York, Cooperative League, 1940. 70 pp.

Based mainly on conditions in Ireland, the author sets forth in this book (first printed in 1912) his idea of a community and then a commonwealth based upon the cooperative philosophy.

Organized labor and consumer cooperation: The value of consumer cooperation to organized workers. By James Myers. New York, Cooperative League, 1940, 39 pp.

The socialistic trend as affecting the cooperative movement. By James Peter Warbasse. New York, Cooperative League, 1940. 32 pp.

Explains how the philosophy of consumers' cooperation differs from that of socialism.

Cost and Standards of Living

Consumer purchases, Cortland County, N. Y.: Town, rural nonfarm, farm buying habits. Philadelphia, Farm Journal and Farmer's Wife, 1940. 72 pp.

The investigation covered about 8.3 percent of the families in Cortland County, N. Y. Consumption of a wide range of items is shown in the series of charts and tables comprising the report.

The construction and standardization of a scale for the measurement of the socio-economic status of Oklahoma farm families. By William H. Sewell. Stillwater, Okla., Agricultural Experiment Station, 1940. 88 pp. (Technical bull. No. 9.)

EDITOR'S NOTE—The Bureau of Labor Statistics does not distribute the publications to which reference is made in this list, except those issued by the Bureau itself. For all others, please write to the respective publishing agencies mentioned.

Factors to be considered in measuring intercity and interregional differences in living costs. By Faith M. Williams. (In *Journal of American Statistical Association*, Washington, September 1940, pp. 471-482; also reprinted.)

Living and office operating costs in Argentina. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, 1940. 10 pp.; mimeographed.

One of a series of reports intended to show the cost in Latin American countries of a standard of living such as important United States firms expect their foreign representatives to maintain. The Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce has issued similar reports during 1940 for Brazil, Panama, and Peru.

A survey of standards of life of New Zealand dairy farmers. By W. T. Doig. Wellington, Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, 1940. 113 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 75; Social science research publication No. 1.)

Information was collected by personal visits of investigators using a comprehensive schedule. Factors taken into account include the farms themselves, family composition, housing and household equipment, work and leisure, expenditures, and consumption.

Dismissal Compensation

Dismissal compensation—voluntary and compulsory plans used in the United States and abroad. By Everett D. Hawkins. Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1940. 390 pp., bibliography.

The study covers company plans for the payment of dismissal compensation in the United States and trade-union agreements providing for such payments. There is a section on foreign legislation providing for dismissal wages, and a review of legislation in different States of the United States affecting the breaking of the labor contract.

Education and Training

Directory of Federally aided all-day trade and industrial education programs. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 192 pp.

The volume is divided into two parts, part one giving an alphabetical listing of the trades taught with the names and addresses of schools in which the training is offered, while part 2 shows the trades taught in specified cities or towns of each State.

Employee-training activities of trade associations. Washington, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Trade Association Division, 1940. 39 pp., illus.

Digest of a report of a conference on employee-training activities in manufacturing, in distributive industries, and in service fields.

Quick-training procedures. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1940. 40 pp. (Studies in personnel policy No. 26.)

This report was prepared because of the need for information regarding quick-training methods as a result of the requirements of the defense program and the shortage of skilled workers, particularly in the metal-working industries. The report contains nine approaches to the problem of training men quickly, given as examples of methods which have worked satisfactorily in the situations for which they were developed and which may be adaptable to other emergency situations.

Where is vocational counsel offered? By Walter J. Greenleaf. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1940. 9 pp. (Misc. 2339.)

Lists the States providing guidance services and the cities in which State employment services have junior counselors or give certain vocational tests or provide both junior counseling and one or more types of tests.

The Wisconsin State Government in-service training apprenticeship program—its first year. By Horace S. Fries and Ernest Engelbert. Madison, University of Wisconsin, Department of Debating and Public Discussion, 1939. 57 pp.; mimeographed.

Gives the history and basis of the apprenticeship program, method of recruitment of candidates, and method of operation, including the administration of the system.

Employment

Summary minutes of conference on employment statistics, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and cooperating State agencies, Washington, D. C., June 24-26, 1940. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 22 pp.; mimeographed.

Public management in the new democracy. Edited by Fritz Morstein Marx and others. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1940. 266 pp., bibliographies.

The 4 parts of this symposium, which includes 15 contributions, deal respectively with the following subjects: Foundations of public management, essentials of public management, recruitment for the public service, and conditions of public employment.

Stabilizing jobs and wages through better business management. By Herman Feldman. New York, Harper & Bros., 1940. 334 pp.

Discussion of business plans and techniques to regularize employment and income.

Handicapped Workers

Subminimum wages for the handicapped under minimum wage regulations. By George Lavos. (In *Outlook for the Blind*, New York, June 1940, pp. 83-94.)

Workmen's compensation insurance and the physically handicapped; Industrial group life insurance and the physically handicapped. By George Lavos. (In *Outlook for the Blind*, New York, October 1940, pp. 133-138.)

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Health and socio-economic studies in Puerto Rico. By P. Morales Otero and others. (In *Puerto Rico Journal of Public Health and Tropical Medicine*, Brattleboro, Vt., June 1937, pp. 405-490; March 1939, pp. 201-289; June 1939, pp. 450-474; June 1940, pp. 285-313.)

The first two of the four articles noted deal with health conditions (including information on housing, the nutritional problem, health and medical agencies) and general economic and social conditions on a sugar-cane plantation, and in the tobacco, coffee, and fruit regions, respectively, of Puerto Rico. The other two articles deal, in turn, with physical measurements and physical impairments of adult life among agricultural workers.

Study of distribution of medical care and public health services in Canada. Toronto, National Committee for Mental Hygiene (Canada), 1939. 184 pp.

Included in this report are a summary of findings in relation to the volume and costs of existing services; administrative policies and practices; morbidity and mortality statistics which show the need for improvement and extension of public-health and medical-care services; facts relating to family incomes and the economic difficulties of many Canadians in meeting the costs of medical care; and experience of other countries in providing medical care for low-income and indigent groups.

Health services provided by Canadian employers. Ottawa, Dominion Bureau of Statistics in collaboration with Department of Pensions and National Health and Department of Labor, 1940. 13 pp. (In English and French.)

This report of a preliminary survey shows the number and size of establishments providing the services of physicians, trained nurses, or trained first-aid workers (other than doctors or nurses), and of those having sick-benefit associations, sickness insurance, and workmen's accident compensation. The number of employees covered by the various services is also reported.

A study of industrial nursing services. (In *Public Health Nursing*, New York, October 1940, pp. 631-636.)

The study covers 42 industrial nursing services in Allegheny County, Pennsylvania. The lack of uniformity in industrial-nursing practices was the most evident fact brought out in the study.

De morbis artificum—Bernardini Ramazzini diatriba. Diseases of workers, the Latin text of 1713, revised, with translation and notes, by Wilmer Cave Wright. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940. xlvii, 549 pp., bibliography. (New York Academy of Medicine, Library, History of medicine series, No. 7.)

This volume contains the revised Latin text and a translation of Ramazzini's famous disquisition on occupational diseases, which was published first in 1700 at Modena, Italy, and the second and enlarged edition of which was published in Padua in 1713. The translation of the 1713 text has been made as literal as possible and without omissions.

Industrial dermatoses. Symposium presented at meetings of American Medical Association and American Dermatological Association. Chicago, American Medical Association, 1939. 174 pp.

The health of brick and tile plant workers in North Carolina. By M. F. Trice. Raleigh, North Carolina State Board of Health and North Carolina Industrial Commission, 1940. 15 pp., mimeographed.

The investigation covered 1,555 employees in 28 plants. Medical examinations, including X-ray films of the chests of these workers, revealed the total absence of silicosis and other serious pulmonary disease, and a low incidence of other respiratory diseases, showing that exposure to dust was not a serious menace to health in this industry.

Painting in Washington industry. By Ward J. Peterson. Olympia, Department of Labor and Industries, Safety Division, 1940. 33 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (Industrial hygiene bull. No. 101.)

The bulletin deals with the symptoms and effects arising from exposure to materials commonly used in the painters' trade, including lead and a large number of solvents and thinners; composition of covering materials commonly used in the painting trade in the State of Washington; and use of mechanical exhaust equipment and other protective equipment in spray painting. State safety standards for spray painting are given, and there is a general discussion of the various branches of the painters' trade.

The reduction of noise in buildings. By A. H. Davis and C. J. Morreau. London, Department of Scientific and Industrial Research, 1939. 52 pp., plans, diagrams. (Special report No. 26.)

Considers the problem of the most practicable and economical means for reducing noise transmission in buildings.

Housing

Housing and the national defense. Philadelphia, Philadelphia Housing Association, 1940. 16 pp.

Discusses the relation of housing to national defense and the effects the building program may have upon Philadelphia and its industries and employment problems.

Rental housing manual. Washington, Federal Housing Administration, 1940. Various paging.

Prepared for the use of the Federal Housing Administration staff in passing on applications for insured mortgage loans.

Annual report of New Jersey State Housing Authority. [Trenton?], 1940. 32 pp., illus.

Review of housing projects under the public program.

Labor and Social Legislation

Recent progress in State labor legislation. Report of Secretary of Labor to Seventh National Conference on Labor Legislation. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1940. 30 pp., charts. (Bull. No. 42.)

The Public Contracts (Walsh-Healey) Act—selected references. Compiled by Eleanor M. Mitchell. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Library, October 1940. 16 pp.; mimeographed.

Labor law administration in North Carolina. By John B. Andrews. (In American Labor Legislation Review, New York, September 1940, pp. 125-144; also reprinted.)

Legislación del trabajo en Bolivia. La Paz, Ministerio del Trabajo y Previsión Social, 1940. 86 pp.

Nueva constitución de la República de Cuba, 1940. Habana, Editorial Luz-Hilo 1940. 128 pp.

In addition to information on the constitutional history of Cuba, this publication gives the official text of the Cuban Constitution of 1940. The Constitution contains provisions concerning minimum wages, daily and weekly hours, protection of women and minor workers, rights of workers and employers to organize, strikes and lock-outs, collective bargaining, restrictions upon employment of aliens, cooperatives, and social insurance.

La législation sociale de la Suisse, 1939. Berne, Département Fédéral de l'Économie Publique, 1940. 224 pp.

German and French texts of social legislation in Switzerland in 1939.

Migration and the Migrants

Interstate migration and personal liberty. (In Columbia Law Review, Columbia University, New York, June 1940, pp. 1032-1049.)

A discussion of the legal and constitutional questions involved in interstate migration. It is held that the question of migration plainly calls for a national solution, and that a discussion of individual State adjustments to the problem "is an inquiry into what the Constitution permits by way of second bests." The question before the courts is essentially an interpretation of freedom of movement, and the hope is expressed that judicial action will support freedom of movement as a constitutional civil liberty. The harrying of underprivileged persons from State to State is described as a "disquieting inconsistency with the spirit of democratic society."

Men on the move. By Nels Anderson. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940. 357 pp., bibliography, illus.

In this book the director of the Section on Labor Relations of the United States Work Projects Administration discusses the reasons for migration; the relation of migrancy to natural resources, to industrial development, and to farm mechanization; and the Federal transient and family-service program. He points out the need of a Federal policy concerning migrants and also the need of coordination of effort among the agencies already dealing with the problem.

Migrants—a national problem and its impact on California. San Francisco: California State Chamber of Commerce, 1940. 51 pp., charts.

The first part of the report is devoted to the factual background of the problem—impact of migration to California, characteristics of migrants, factors causing migration in States of origin, and factors attracting migrants to California—and the second part, to conclusions and recommendations.

Forced migrations. By Charles E. Noyes. Washington, Editorial Research Reports, 1013 Thirteenth Street, NW., 1940. 12 pp. (Vol. II, 1940, No. 11.)

The 4 major subjects discussed in the pamphlet are German proposals for resettlement of Europe; mass migrations of previous centuries; exchange of Greeks, Bulgarians, and Turks; and population shifts in the present war.

Occupations

Careers in aviation. By Ben B. Follett. Boston, Waverly House, 1940. xx, 254 pp.

Out of his 20 years of experience in the aviation field, the author presents in this book what he calls an "index of opportunity." He discusses in popular style the opportunities, requirements, pay, and ways to succeed as a pilot (commercial, airline, sportsman) and as an airline stewardess, and in occupations in the following branches of aviation: Maintenance and mechanics; meteorology; technical engineering; airport control—radio, radio range; management; and military flying. The final chapter is devoted to the flight training program sponsored by the Federal Government.

Job descriptions for lumber and lumber products industries, including sawmill, planing mill, excelsior, and general woodworking jobs. Washington, U. S. Employment Service, 1939. xxxvii, 347 pp., illus.

Film strips and motion pictures for presenting occupational information. Albany, N. Y., University of State of New York, Bureau of Guidance, 1939. 8 pp.; mimeographed.

Personnel Management

Personnel practices in factory and office. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1940. 55 pp. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 23.)

The report presents tables covering policies of the reporting companies regarding hours of work and attendance; employment and pay-roll procedures; absences from work; lay-off, discharge, and resignation; plant privileges, etc.

Proceedings of 1940 Louisiana Personnel Conference held at Louisiana State University, May 10, 1940. Baton Rouge, Louisiana State University, College of Commerce, 1940. 55 pp.

Job evaluation: Formal plans for determining basic pay differentials. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., 1940. 43 pp., bibliography. (Studies in personnel policy, No. 25.)

Motion and time study. By Ralph M. Barnes. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1940. 390 pp., bibliography, diagrams, illus. 2d ed.

Functions of the personnel director. New York, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., Policyholders Service Bureau, [1940?]. 37 pp.

The pamphlet is designed to serve as a guide to companies establishing a personnel department, and is based on a survey of present methods of handling industrial relations in large and small companies.

Prices and Price Control

The anatomy of prices, 1890-1940. By Frederick C. Mills. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1940. 16 pp. (Bull. 80.)

Price maintenance in Knoxville, Tenn., under Tennessee Fair Trade Act of 1937. By Charles W. Lewis. Knoxville, 1939. 64 pp. (University of Tennessee Record, Vol. 42, No. 6.)

Foreign experience with retail price controls. By Reinhold P. Wolff. (In *Journal of Marketing*, New York, October 1940, pp. 143-147.)

The article deals with the price-control organizations of Great Britain, Germany, and France.

Price fixing by government in foreign countries, 1926-1939. A selected list of references on direct price fixing of agricultural products by foreign governments. Compiled by Annie M. Hannay. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics, July 1940. 631 pp.; mimeographed. (Agricultural economics bibliography No. 86.)

Prison Labor

The prison problem in Colorado. Washington, U. S. Prison Industries Reorganization Administration, 1940. 74 pp.; mimeographed.

The twenty-fourth in a series of reports on State penal systems, begun in 1936 by the Prison Industries Reorganization Administration. Prison employment is one of the matters studied.

The State-use system of prison labor in Massachusetts. By Harold E. Lane. (In *Social Forces*, Chapel Hill, N. C., October 1940, pp. 56-62.)

Recreation

Industrial recreation, its development and present status. By Leonard J. Diehl and Floyd R. Eastwood. Lafayette, Ind., Purdue University, 1940. 75 pp.

The survey, which was mainly a questionnaire study, covered 639 companies, 245 of which had recreational programs. The report shows the extent and types of recreation activities, methods of administering the programs, and facilities and equipment provided.

1940 yearbook, park and recreation progress. Washington, U. S. National Park Service, 1940. 92 pp., bibliography, maps, plans, illus.

The yearbook contains articles by different writers on such subjects as the value of recreational area planning, recreation as a byproduct of reclamation, the function of county parks, the meaning of parks and recreation, etc., as well as descriptions of various park developments.

Social Security

Employment security in agriculture. By A. J. Altmeyer. (In *Employment Security Review*, U. S. Bureau of Employment Security, Washington, August 1940, pp. 3-7.)

Social insurance and agriculture. By William S. Hopkins. Washington, Social Science Research Council, Committee on Social Security, 1940. 93 pp. (Pamphlet series No. 5.)

A memorandum presenting suggestions for research and a bibliography.

Structure of annual wage plans—elements of success or failure. By F. Beatrice Brower. (In *Advanced Management*, Society for Advancement of Management, Inc., New York, July-September 1940, pp. 110-115, 124.)

The writer discusses the annual wage plans of a number of companies. The plans covered fall into four classifications, i. e., plans which guarantee employment for a stated number of weeks a year; payment of an annual wage in weekly installments; wage-advance plans; and short-term plans which provide for security of income for a relatively short period.

Twenty-ninth annual report of Board of National Provident Fund, New Zealand, 1939. Wellington, 1940. 4 pp.

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Frances Perkins, Secretary

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Isador Lubin, Commissioner (on leave)

A. F. HINRICHS, Acting Commissioner



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Index to Volume 51—July to December 1940

NOTE.—This is a SUBJECT INDEX. Names of authors do not appear as main entries

Accident prevention, United States:

Construction industry. Building, heavy and railroad, and highway work, with injury rates for 1939.....	Page Oct. 935-46
Defense industries. Appointment of safety committee for, by Secretary of Labor, July 28, 1940.....	Sept. 568-9
Lumber industry (logging, sawmills, planing mills). Certain injuries, 1939, and means by which they could have been avoided (Kjaer and Kossoris).....	Sept. 676-9

Accident prevention, foreign countries:

Canada. Policy toward, during war; list of questions asked employers by industrial accident prevention associations.....	Dec. 1362
Colombia. Construction workers, law of December 19, 1939.....	July 70-1

Accident statistics, United States:

Age distribution of workers injured (New York and Wisconsin).....	Oct. 789-804
Alabama. Industrial and home, by year, 1933-38, and proportion occurring on farms... Construction industry. Disabling injuries, distribution by companies and branches of construction.....	July 109-11 Oct. 942-3
— Injury rates, by type of accident, severity, size of company, and time lost, 1939.....	Oct. 935-42
Deaths per 1,000 injuries. By age group and sex, New York State, 1933-37.....	Oct. 800, 802
Farms (Alabama). Number, and percent of total home and industrial, by year, 1933-38. Industrial, 1939. By industry, showing extent of disability caused; relation of exposure, frequency, and time lost; disability distribution; and trend since 1926.....	July 109-11 July 86-108
Iron and steel industry. By department and extent of disability, 1938 and 1939.....	Aug. 322-33
— Frequency rates, by cause, selected years 1913-35 and 1936-39.....	Aug. 333
Lumber industry (logging, sawmills, planing mills). Injury rates by division of industry, geographical district, cause, severity, time lost, and size of establishment (Kjaer and Kossoris).....	Sept. 663-76
Mining, coal (anthracite and bituminous). Frequency rates, by year, 1930-39, and summary.....	Dec. 1417-18
Mining, metalliferous and nonmetal. Frequency rates, by year, 1931-39, and experience, by kind of mine, 1938.....	Dec. 1418-20
New York. Age distribution of workers injured, 1933-37.....	Oct. 790-1, 802, 804
Quarries. Frequency rates by year, 1931-39, and experience, 1937, by kind of product worked.....	Dec. 1420-1
Railroads. Injuries to employees, passengers, and trespassers, and in rail-highway accidents, by year, 1930-39.....	Nov. 1171-5
Wisconsin. Industrial Commission report, age distribution of cases.....	Oct. 789-804

Accident statistics, foreign countries:

Austria. Frequency rates by age (from ILO study).....	Oct. 790, 798
Canada. Fatal, 1939, by industry.....	July 111
Switzerland. Experience 1930-34, age distribution.....	Oct. 790, 791, 796, 802, 804

Aged persons, homes for. Rochester, N. Y., community-chest survey of 6 institutions, summary.....

Nov. 1114-19

Agricultural-implement industry. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, May to September 1940.....

Aug. 461; Sept. 706; Oct. 971; Nov. 1194; Dec. 1466

Agriculture, United States:

Arizona and California. Agricultural Workers' Health and Medical Association. Reasons for organization, plan, and results of operation.....	Aug. 333-7
Cotton production. Hired workers and sharecroppers, employment trends, residence instability, and economic status.....	Nov. 1151-5
Farms (Alabama). Accident statistics by year, 1932-38.....	July 109-11
Hawaii. Labor conditions and trends.....	Dec. 1310-21
Migratory labor (Western States). Living conditions. Report and recommendation of U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities..	Dec. 1364, 1365-6
Stamp plans, food and cotton, of Surplus Marketing Administration. Objectives, methods, and relation to defense.....	Nov. 1060-5

Agriculture, Germany (East Prussia). German and non-German workers, differences between hours of work required and remuneration granted, labor rules, May 17, 1940.....

Aug. 313-14

Air transportation. Civilian-pilot-training program of U. S. Civil Aeronautics Authority.

Summary of first annual report, and outlook for 1940-41..... July 80-4

Aircraft manufacturing industry, United States:

Collective agreements (12). Provisions, general, as to duration and renewal of contract, union status, hiring, wages, hours, overtime, holidays, vacations, leave, seniority, transfer, promotion, lay-off, reemployment, discharge, learners and apprentices, and settlement of disputes.....

Page
Aug. 290-302

Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....

July 199;
Aug. 461; Sept. 706; Oct. 971; Nov. 1194; Dec. 1466

Aircraft-manufacturing industry, Canada. Worker training and labor dilution, contract provisions for, 1940.....

July 27-9

Airplane industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....

Oct. 814

Aliens, United States:

Employment policies concerning. Industrial distribution as indication of (National Ind. Conf. Bd. survey).....

Dec. 1354-5

Legal restriction upon employment of. Compared with those of Latin American republics.....

Dec. 1352-4

— Federal and State provisions as of June 1940.....

Aug. 245-9

Registration and fingerprinting. Act of 1940, provisions.....

Aug. 245-6; Sept. 569-71

Aliens, foreign countries:

Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....

Oct. 880

Latin America. Legal restrictions upon employment, summary of.....

Dec. 1352-4

Aluminum industry. Labor turn-over. Rate September 1940.....

Dec. 1466

Apparel industry. Learners, employment of, provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act.....

Nov. 1205

Apprentices:

Fair Labor Standards (Wage and Hour) Act of 1938. Regulations concerning.....

Sept. 558

Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary.....

Sept. 608-9

Apprenticeship, United States:

Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (3), provisions, general.....

Aug. 299-300

Training system. New York Shipbuilding Corporation, features.....

Sept. 609

Apprenticeship. Australia. Wartime training and reinstatement policies.....

Oct. 854-5

Army and Navy service (U. S. Government). Remuneration; allowances; promotion including reenlistment; and retired pay.....

July 1-4

Artificial-flowers industry. Learners, employment of. Provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act.....

Nov. 1206

Automobiles and bodies; automobile parts. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....

July 199;

Aug. 461; Sept. 706-7; Oct. 971; Nov. 1194; Dec. 1466

Banks:

Labor. (See under Cooperation.)

Personnel policies. Study by Industrial Relations Section of Princeton University, summary of.....

Aug. 315-19

Blind persons, aid to. Sweden. Government pensions granted, 1938.....

July 73

Bobbinet industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....

Oct. 815

Boot and shoe industry. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....

July 199;

Aug. 461; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1194; Dec. 1466

Brass, bronze, and copper products. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, May to September 1940.....

Aug. 461; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1194; Dec. 1466

Brick, tile, and terra cotta. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....

July 199;

Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466

Budgets, cost-of-living. Argentina (Buenos Aires). Workers' families, May 1940.....

Dec. 1567-8

Building and loan associations. New York State League of Savings and Loan Associations. Group retirement plan adopted 1939.....

Oct. 887-8

Building construction, United States:

Federal and State buildings, principal cities. Value of contracts awarded, May to October 1940.....

July 221; Aug. 491; Sept. 743; Oct. 1007; Nov. 1278; Dec. 1533

One-family houses. Permit valuation, and "size of builder," by cities (72), 1938.....

Sept. 732-9

Residential. New units, nonfarm, by type, region, size of city, and source of funds, first quarter and first half of 1940 compared with 1939; and permit valuations, by region and source of funds, first quarter and first half of 1940.....

Aug. 481-7; Oct. 998-1003

— 1-family houses, Cleveland, Ohio, and suburbs, and 71 other large cities, statistics showing number of houses and builders, by "size of builder," 1933.....

Sept. 736-9

— 1-family houses (72 cities), by size of builder, size of city, and permit valuation, 1938.....

Sept. 732-9

— Permit fees. Type charged, by locality and size of city, findings of BLS survey.....

Dec. 1535-8

Statistics. Number and kind of buildings, permit valuation, and families provided for, principal cities, May to October 1940; comparison of cumulative figures, each month, with previous years.....

July 218-21; Aug. 487-91; Sept. 739-43; Oct. 1003-7; Nov. 1275-8; Dec. 1530-3

	Page
Building construction. Sweden. Depression, 1940, compared with 1939.....	Dec. 1370
Burial associations. (<i>See under</i> Cooperation.)	
Carpet and rug industry:	
Wool. Minimum-wage provision under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 813
Wool (including carpet yarns), and cotton. Definitions and description of industries and plan of BLS survey of earnings and hours.....	July 164-8, 181
Cast-iron pipe. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199;
	Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466
Cement industry:	
Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199;
	Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466
Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 818-19
Technological changes and labor productivity. Summary 1919-38.....	July 47-50
Child labor, United States:	
Canneries, vegetable (Maryland). Occupations, hours and earnings, and benefit resulting from requirement of employment certificates.....	Nov. 1136-8
Coal mining occupations. 13-year age minimum established under Fair Labor Standards Act, September 1, 1940; provisions.....	Oct. 892
Fair Labor Standards Act provisions, summary of.....	Sept. 562
Child labor. Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 879
Child welfare. White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. National Citizens' Committee statement (text).....	Sept. 567-8
Children, dependent, aid to. Sweden. Government allowances, 1938.....	July 73
China, vitreous or vitrified, industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 812
Cigars and cigarettes. (<i>See under</i> Tobacco industry.)	
City and town planning. Great Britain. Need for, in preparation for post-war adjustments.....	Nov. 1158-9
Civil Aeronautics Authority (U. S. Government). Pilot training. Experimental program, operation 1938-39.....	July 80-4
Civilian Conservation Corps (U. S. Government). Negro youth. Number in service to July 1939 and contributions to families' income.....	Aug. 354
Civilian Pilot Training program. Operation, year ending June 30, 1939 (summary, first annual report).....	July 80-4
Clay-products industry. Decline in given area (Brazil, Ind.) account decrease in demand for clay conduits.....	Sept. 589-91
Clothing industry, men's:	
Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
	Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 972; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467
Work clothing. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 809
Clothing industry (women's and children's). Minimum wage, rate set July 15, 1940.....	Oct. 902
Coffee industry. Puerto Rico. History and conditions in 1939.....	Aug. 146-7
Collective agreements:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Summary of provisions in 12 contracts.....	Aug. 290-302
Annual-wage and guaranteed-employment plans. Summary and sample provisions.....	Aug. 283-9
Duration and renewal. Aircraft manufacture, summary of provisions.....	Aug. 290-1
— Shipbuilding industry, summary of provisions.....	Sept. 599-600
Military-service. Seniority, summary of provisions.....	Oct. 859-60
Paid vacations. Stipulations concerning, summarized, and proportion of agreements providing for.....	Nov. 1070-7
Shifts. Summary of provisions.....	Oct. 860-72
Shipbuilding industry. Summary of provisions in 28 contracts.....	Sept. 597-613
Union wage provisions. Not enforceable for employee who continues under individual wage contract (Wash. State Sup. Ct. decision).....	Nov. 1179
Compulsory labor. Germany. Opposition penalized by Government orders issued January 30 and March 12, 1940.....	Sept. 584
Conciliation and arbitration, United States:	
Department of Labor, work of. By States and industries, July 1, 1939, to June 30, 1940....	Oct. 966-7
— By States and industries, May to October 1940.....	July 155-6;
	Aug. 415-16; Sept. 694-5; Oct. 964-5; Nov. 1190-1; Dec. 1454-5
Ship Clerks' Union (San Francisco). Wages and vacations with pay. Award by chairman of board and section added to agreement, 1940 (text).....	Nov. 1086-93
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions for, summary.....	Sept. 612-13
Conciliation and arbitration, Great Britain. Compulsory settlement, by national arbitration tribunal created July 18, 1940.....	Sept. 576-7
Congress of Industrial Organizations. Voting strength of various unions at 1940 convention..	Dec. 1459-61
Conservation. Forest and lumber. Problems and methods.....	July 53-5, 60-1

Construction industry:

Building, heavy and railroad, and highway, accident-frequency rates, 1939, and preventive measures indicated.....	Page Oct. 935-46
Federal funds (financed from). Value of contracts awarded and force-account work started, by Government agency, May to October 1940.....	July 222; Aug. 491; Sept. 743; Oct. 1007; Nov. 1279; Dec. 1534
State funds (financed from). Public buildings and roads (highways), May to October 1940.....	July 222; Aug. 491; Sept. 743; Oct. 1007; Nov. 1279; Dec. 1534

Contracts (U. S. Government):

Division of Public Contracts established in Department of Labor, under Walsh-Healey Act; administration.....	Oct. 820-2
Purchase of equipment and material. Minimum-wage determinations under Walsh-Healey Act (1936), to August 31, 1940, provisions, by industry.....	Oct. 809-19
— Walsh-Healey Act, 1936, operations under to 1940, including tabulation of minimum-wage determinations.....	Oct. 805-22

Conventions, meetings, etc:

American Federation of Labor, 60th. New Orleans, November 18-29. Summary of proceedings.....	Dec. 1456-9
Career conferences for youth. New York City, 1936 and each subsequent year; and related activities.....	Oct. 897-8
Congress of Industrial Organizations, 3d. Atlantic City, N. J., November 18-22. Summary of proceedings.....	Dec. 1456, 1459-61
Governmental Labor Officials, International Association of. New York City, September 7-12, 1940; resolutions, text of.....	Oct. 873-5
Industrial Accident Boards, International Association of. Richmond, Va., September 9-12, 1940. Discussions, summary of, and roster of officers.....	Oct. 875
Interfaith Conference on Unemployment. Washington, D. C., June 4-6, 1940. Composition, aims, and findings.....	July 41-3
Trades and Labor Congress of Canada. Vancouver, September 23-27, 1940. Proceedings summarized.....	Dec. 1462

Cooperation, United States:

Banks, labor. Resources each year 1920-40.....	Oct. 934
— Status June 30, 1940, by individual bank.....	Oct. 933-4
Burial associations. Funds, services, charges, and procedures, and 1939 operations, earnings, and patronage refunds, 5 Midwestern States.....	Nov. 1160-7
Consumers'. Retail distributive and service associations, credit unions, telephone associations, and insurance associations, statistics, 1939.....	Oct. 928
— Summary for 1939.....	Oct. 926-33
— Wholesale associations, regional, interregional and district, statistics by organization, 1939.....	Oct. 929-31
— Wholesaling, trend, 1929 to 1939.....	Oct. 932-3
Credit unions. Federation among, and membership of State leagues, 1939.....	Sept. 660-1
— Method of operation and fundamentals of cooperative credit.....	Sept. 661-2
— Operations, 1939, by States.....	Sept. 654-9
— State-chartered (by States), and Federal-chartered, number at end of 1939, and trend of growth, 1936-39.....	Sept. 656, 660
District of Columbia. "Model cooperative law" enacted June 1940, summary of provisions.....	Aug. 365-6

Cooperation, foreign countries:

Canada. Consumers'. Wholesales, credit unions, and banks, summary of status in 1939.....	Nov. 1167-70
— Credit unions, status by Province, 1938.....	Nov. 1168-9
— Wholesales, Provincial, and Inter-Provincial federation, general status, 1940.....	Nov. 1168
— (Alberta, Manitoba, Saskatchewan.) Wholesales, Provincial, total sales and net gain, 1939.....	Nov. 1168
— (Quebec.) Banks, development, 1934 to 1938.....	Nov. 1169-70
Cuba. Formation and regulation provided for in Constitution approved July 5, 1940.....	Oct. 882
Egypt. Obstacles to progress of societies.....	July 43-5

Cost. Labor. (See *inverted title*.)

Cost of living, United States:

Food. Expenditures, workers' families, annual per capita, and proportions of various kinds purchased (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 257
— Expenditures, workers' families, at restaurants and lunch counters, and for food prepared at home (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 254
— Expenditures, workers' families, by consumption level (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 253

Cost of living, United States—Continued.

	Page
Food. Expenditures, workers' families, by income level and by family type (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 250-2
— Expenditures, workers' families, of 3 types, percent of total living cost (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 252
Index. Comparison between cities, method of ascertaining.....	Oct. 1018
— (New—1935-39 basis), U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Items included and their relative importance; methods of deriving weights and combining group and city indexes, and comparison with original index.....	Aug. 367-92
Indexes. By items and by cities (33) March 15 and September 15, 1940; all cities combined, specified periods 1913 to September 15, 1940.....	July 143-6; Oct. 1011-18; Dec. 1555-60
— Purchases, total and by items, workers' families in large cities, specified periods 1913 to March 15, 1940.....	Aug. 392-3
— Workers' families by groups of items and by cities (32), specified periods March 1935 to March 1940.....	Aug. 393-404
Intercity differences. Estimated, 31 large cities, June 15 and September 15, 1940.....	Oct. 1019-22; Dec. 1561-4
Life insurance. Low-income families, ratio of premium payments to income.....	Dec. 1347
Medical and hospital care. Miners (bituminous coal) Arkansas. Family expenditures, average for various items.....	Dec. 1422-3
Percentage changes (33 cities). By item and by quarter, December 15, 1939, to September 15, 1940, and specified periods.....	July 139-42; Oct. 1008-11; Dec. 1552-5
Savings. Workers' families, shown by year's changes in assets and liabilities (12 months in period 1934-36).....	July 119-39
Stamp plans, food and cotton. Surplus Marketing Administration (U. S. Department of Agriculture). Objectives, methods and operations.....	Nov. 1060-5
Cost of living, foreign countries:	
Argentina (Buenos Aires). Worker's family, typical, by item, May 1940, and years 1929 and 1939.....	Dec. 1567-8
Chile. Worker's family, typical, 1928-39.....	Oct. 1022-3
Costa Rica. Food and housing, 1938.....	Nov. 1253-4
Great Britain. Rise under war conditions, in connection with wage increases.....	Sept. 577
Indexes (1929 or nearest possible year=100). Food and general items, by year 1930-39, by quarter March 1939 to date shown: Argentina (Buenos Aires) to February 1940; Australia to February 1940; Belgium to March 1940; Brazil (Rio de Janeiro) to 1938; Bulgaria to May 1940; Burma (Rangoon) to March 1940; Canada to May 1940; Chile (Santiago) to April 1940; China (Shanghai) to April 1940; Colombia (Bogota) to April 1940; Costa Rica (San Jose) to May 1940; Czechoslovakia (Prague) to July 1939; Denmark to March 1940; Egypt (Cairo) to March 1940; Estonia (Tallinn) to May 1940; Finland to January 1940; France to May 1940; Germany to May 1940; Great Britain and Northern Ireland to May 1940; Greece to May 1940; Hungary (Budapest) to April 1940; India (Bombay) to March 1940, (Ahmedabad) to February 1940; Indo-China (Saigon) to November 1939; Iran to November 1939; Ireland to May 1940; Italy to July 1939; Japan (24 localities) to March 1940, (13 localities) to January 1940, (Tokyo) to April 1940; Latvia (Riga) to May 1940; Lithuania to May 1940; Luxemburg to April 1940; Mexico (Mexico City) to January 1940; Netherlands (Amsterdam) to March 1940; Netherlands Indies (Batavia) to April 1940; New Zealand to February 1940; Norway to April 1940; Palestine to February 1940; Peru (Lima) to May 1940; Poland (Warsaw) to July 1939; Portugal to May 1940; Rumania (Bucharest) to March 1940; Southern Rhodesia to May 1940; Spain (Madrid) to December 1939; Sweden to March 1940; Switzerland to May 1940; Tunisia (Tunis) to August 1939; Turkey (Istanbul) to November 1939; Union of South Africa to May 1940; Uruguay (Montevideo) to March 1940; Yugoslavia (Belgrade) to May 1940, (Croatia and Slavonia) to May 1940.....	Dec. 1564-7
Norway. Trend, by item, 1938-40.....	Aug. 405
Sweden. Relation of index in 1940 and 1941 to wage rates, under collective agreement, printing trades.....	Nov. 1254-5
Venezuela (Caracas). Low-cost restaurant, plan, and operations first year ending May 1940.....	Dec. 1569
Cotton garments and allied industries. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 809
Cotton. Production of. (See under Agriculture.)	
Cotton-stamp plan. Surplus Marketing Administration (U. S. Department of Agriculture). Objectives, methods, and extent of available market.....	Nov. 1063-5
Cotton-textile manufacturing. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199; Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466
Court decisions. (See Decisions of courts.)	
Credit unions. (See under Cooperation.)	

Decisions of courts, United States:

Alien registration. State law (Pa.) declared unconstitutional (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Page Aug. 364
Beauty-school instructor. Not included under minimum-wage provision for beauty-shop operators (Wash. Sup. Ct.).....	Oct. 952
Casualty-insurance contracts. To be made through registered resident agents. Virginia statute upheld (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 364
Company union. Disestablishment by National Labor Relations Board upheld (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 359
Contract, individual, with employer. Not invalidated by employee's joining union which made a different contract (Wash. Sup. Ct.).....	Nov. 1179
Dyeing-plant operator processing materials moving through interstate-commerce channels. Subject to National Labor Relations Act (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 117; Aug. 358-9
Employee elections conducted by National Labor Relations Board. Not subject to court interference (3 cases, U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 357
Employers' liability insurance. Lead poisoning through unusual working conditions held accidental and within coverage (U. S. Cir. Ct. of App. for 5th Cir.).....	Oct. 953
Employment contracts restricting collective bargaining. May be invalidated by National Labor Relations Board (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 358
Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Applicability to production of goods within State (Decision of Fed. Dist. Ct. in Ga. appealed to U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 364-5
— Requirement for production of wage and hour documents upheld (by U. S. Sup. Ct. refusal to review decisions of Fed. Dist. Ct. in Chicago and Cir. Ct. of App.).....	Dec. 1436-7
— Watchman tending boiler held to be engaged in production of goods for interstate commerce (N. C. Sup. Ct.).....	Dec. 1437
Hours Law, underground mines or "workings" applicable only to employees in mining and smelting operations (Utah Sup. Ct.).....	Nov. 1178
— Nonoperating employees of truck and bus companies in interstate commerce. Not under jurisdiction of Commission (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 115-16; Aug. 362
Labor relations. Cases, 1939-40 (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 356-9
Lessor of store. Held to be employer under hours of labor law (Mass. Sup. Jud. Ct.)....	Oct. 951-2
Motor vehicles used to carry other vehicles. State (Pa.) regulation of operation held constitutional (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 116; Aug. 362-3
Municipally owned and operated public utility. Subject to State Labor Mediation Act (Mich. Sup. Ct.).....	Dec. 1439
National Labor Relations Board. Findings of fact by, not to be reviewed by courts (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 357-8
— Suit to enforce orders ruled province of Board and not of union (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 358
Occupational disease. Employee's right of action against employer upheld despite fact both had accepted workmen's compensation plan (Fed. Dist. Ct. in Colo.).....	Oct. 953-4
Pamphlets, distribution of. Laws (municipal) prohibiting or limiting, held invalid (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 360
Picketing. By minority union, of employer having closed shop with union certified by NLRB. Held not lawful (Wash. Sup. Ct.).....	Oct. 952
— Cases involving, 1939-40 (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 359-60
— Of employer, account selling to customer not in good standing with union. Held labor dispute under anti-injunction law (Wash. Sup. Ct.).....	Dec. 1438-9
— Prohibitory laws (Ala. and Calif.) held invalid (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 359-60
Processor whose goods are moved to and from plant through channels of interstate commerce. Subject to rulings of National Labor Relations Board (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 117; Aug. 358-9
Public Contracts (Walsh-Healey) law. Wage requirements under held not subject to judicial review (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 114-15; Aug. 361-2
Safety, health, etc. Cases, 1939-40 (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 362-5
Service of papers. Small-claims court, by registered mail, upheld (U. S. Ct. of App. for D. C.).....	Dec. 1426, 1427
Sherman Antitrust Act. Applicability to labor unions and their activities (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 360-1
Sit-down strike. Held not violation of Sherman Antitrust Act (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 360-1
Truck and bus companies' nonoperating employees. Hours of work ruled to be under jurisdiction of Wage and Hour Division instead of ICC (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 115-16; Aug. 362
Unemployment compensation. Disqualification for by participation in industrial disputes. Decisions of State tribunals summarized.....	Dec. 1375-91
— Employee not participating in strike entitled to benefits (N. J. Sup. Ct.).....	Nov. 1178-9
Union-contract provision. (wage). Not applicable to employee who continues work under individual contract (Wash. State Sup. Ct.).....	Nov. 1179
U. S. Supreme Court rulings, 1939-40, summary of.....	Aug. 356-65
Wage and hour cases, 1939-40 (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 361-2

Decisions of courts, United States—Continued.

	Page
Woman entertainers in restaurants. Inclusion under statute prohibiting work after 10 p. m. upheld (Conn. Sup. Ct. of Errors).....	Oct. 951
Woman workers. Michigan statute requiring pay equal to pay of men doing same work upheld (Mich. Sup. Ct.).....	Dec. 1437-8
Workmen's compensation. Acceptance of plan by both employer and employee held not bar to legal action against employer in case of occupational disease (Fed. Dist. Ct. in Colo.).....	Oct. 953-4
— Congressional act directing Employees' Compensation Commission to review order terminating compensation, held not violation of due-process clause, and not exercise of judicial function (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 363
— Drowning while employed on vessel in navigable waters held compensable under Federal Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Compensation Act, regardless of whether member of crew (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 363
— Exposure to tuberculosis through another employee's negligence held compensable accident (N. C. Sup. Ct.).....	Nov. 1179-80
— Federal post-office building (New York). State building regulation (labor law) not displaced although construction under Federal sovereignty (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 364
— Insurance law, Virginia, affecting contracts, upheld (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 364
— Lead poisoning contracted through unusual circumstances held accidental injury rather than occupational disease (U. S. Cir. Ct. of App. for 5th Cir.).....	Oct. 953
— Medical treatment and hospitalization ruled not part of total payable for permanent total disability (N. C. Sup. Ct.).....	July 117-18
— Pneumonia, death from, as result of extreme changes in temperature in performance of work, held compensable (Ct. of App. of Ohio).....	Oct. 954
— Puerto Rico. Lower court not to be overruled on its construction of local statutes unless for manifest error (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 363-4
— Railroad employee's accidental death while riding on pass to work held compensable (N. J. Dept. of Labor).....	Nov. 1180
— Railroads. Preference to personal-injury claims (in equity receivership under bankruptcy act) upheld (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	Aug. 363
— Right of action against employer in case of occupational disease (not covered by provisions) upheld (Fed. Dist. Ct. in Colo.).....	Oct. 953-4
Decisions of courts. Great Britain. Unemployment compensation, labor-dispute disqualification for. Not applied to individual not participating nor interested in dispute (8344 Bu-806).....	Dec. 1387-8
Defense policies:	
Child conservation. White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, National Citizens' Committee, statement by (text).....	Sept. 567-8
Employment-clearance system. Inaugurated October 1940 by U. S. Employment Service; outline of plan.....	Dec. 1356-7
Food supplies available for consumption in 1940-41. Comparison with previous years.....	Oct. 851-3
Housing program. Recommendations of Housing Committee of Twentieth Century Fund summarized.....	Dec. 1412-16
Industry, limited conscription of. Selective Training and Service Act of 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 835
Job seekers at public employment agencies, inventory of April 1940. Occupational, industrial, regional, skill, and sex distributions.....	Oct. 836-50
Manpower, Conservation of, National Committee for (U. S. Dept. of Labor). Functions and plan of operation.....	Sept. 568-9
National Defense Advisory Commission. Announcement as to hours, wages, working conditions, etc., September 1, 1940.....	Oct. 850-1
Safety experts (8). Appointed for industry by Secretary of Labor July 28, 1940.....	Sept. 568-9
Selective Training and Service Act of 1940. Effects upon labor and management.....	Oct. 834-5
Stamp plans, food and cotton, under Surplus Marketing Administration. Summary of objectives, methods, and operation.....	Nov. 1060-5
Woman workers. Standards for employment (U. S. Women's Bureau report), summary of.....	Sept. 564-7
Depressed communities. Worked-out mines, cut-over timber lands, and declining manufacture of specialized products. WPA study of.....	Sept. 588-91
Depression period. Negro youth as affected by.....	Aug. 352-5
Diets. (See under Nutrition.)	
Discharge of workers. Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements, provisions, general.....	Aug. 299
Dismissal compensation. Colombia. Construction workers. Provision in law of December 19, 1939.....	July 70-1
Dock workers. Ship Clerks, Union (San Francisco). Wages and paid vacations. Arbitration award, 1940 (text).....	Nov. 1086-93

Domestic service, United States:

Placements, New York State, by occupation, July 1938 to June 1939.....	Page Oct. 907-9
Positions not filled by placement agencies, and reasons suggested (New York State).....	Oct. 909-10
Domestic service. Germany (Westfalen-Niederrhein). Working conditions.....	Oct. 910-11
Drug and medicine industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 817
Dyeing and finishing textiles. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, May to September 1940.....	Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466

Economic conditions, United States:

Concentration of employment and production in large firms. Degree of, in 8 selected industries, 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Hawaii. Résumé of, in relation to labor situation.....	Dec. 1305-27
Economic conditions. Egypt. Summary of, with account of measures undertaken for improvement.....	July 43-5
Education:	
Negro youth, in depression period.....	Aug. 354-5
(See also Vocational education; Workers' education.)	
Electrical machinery. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199; Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466
Electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies industries. Employment and production.	
Concentration in largest companies, year 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Embroideries industry. Description, method, and scope of wages and hours survey of 1940.....	Dec. 1503-8
Emergency Fleet Corporation of Shipping Board (U. S. Government). Housing for war laborers in shipyards. Summary of activities 1918-20.....	July 6-9
Employers' organizations. ILO report upon tripartite collaboration between public officials and workers' and employers' organizations. Summary.....	Sept. 613-21
Employment agencies:	
Forty Plus Club (New York City). Activities, first half 1940.....	Sept. 621
Junior services, NYA program. Activities, March 1936 to July 1, 1940.....	Sept. 636
Toledo (Ohio) employment security center. Veteran-placement plan, 1940.....	Nov. 1120-2
U. S. public employment services, Federal and State. Activities May to September 1940.....	July 62-5; Aug. 340-3; Sept. 624-7; Nov. 1106-10; Dec. 1391-5
— Clearance system inaugurated October 1940.....	Dec. 1356-7
— Industrial-experience distribution of applicants by sex, age group, and State, April 1940.....	Oct. 843-50
— Occupational distribution of applicants by skill, sex, age group, State, and area, April 1940.....	Oct. 836-43, 848-9
Youth organizations, private (Job Hunters of Boston; East Side Job Council, New York City; Under Thirty Club of Houston; Eighteen to Thirty Associates, San Francisco). Activities summarized.....	Nov. 1128-33
Employment outlook:	
Agriculture. Farm workers, seasonal variation in demand for.....	July 186-7
High-school and college graduates of 1940 and specially trained students of next 5 years. Survey by Ohio Unemployment Compensation Bureau, summary.....	Oct. 898-900
Lumber and timber products. Shifting and declining nature, and causes for changes.....	July 56-61
Mining industry, iron. Technological changes and other factors causing decline in opportunities.....	Oct. 883-6
Technical-job possibilities for 1940 college and high-school graduates and specially trained students of next 5 years. Ohio Unemployment Compensation Bureau survey, summary.....	Oct. 899-900
Tung-oil production. Probable increase in jobs as industry develops.....	Aug. 308-11
Employment, stabilization of:	
Annual wage and guaranteed employment. Union-agreement provisions.....	Aug. 283-9
Fair Labor Standards (Wage and Hour) Act of 1938. Guaranteed-annual-wage plan.....	Sept. 560-1
International Harvester Co. Plan for unemployment income through savings and extra-compensation system.....	Sept. 631-3
Plans (in union agreements). Limited guaranty.....	Aug. 287-9
— Without restrictions.....	Aug. 284-6
Employment statistics, United States:	
Agriculture. Average total number, years 1929, 1932, and 1939, and by geographic division, each month of 1939.....	July 186-7
Aliens in American industry. Survey (149 companies) by National Industrial Conference Board.....	Dec. 1354-5
Concentration. Percent of, in largest companies, selected industries, 1935.....	Dec. 1529

Employment statistics, United States—Continued.

	Page
Indexes. Revised, for aircraft, transportation equipment, durable goods, and "all manufacturing," including pay rolls, January 1939 to September 1940.....	Dec. 1591
Industrial and business. By principal metropolitan areas, including pay rolls, April to September 1940.....	July 216-17; Aug. 480; Sept. 777; Nov. 1273; Dec. 1591-2
— By States and geographic divisions, including pay rolls, March and April 1940.....	July 215-17
— (Manufacturing, mining, public utilities, trade, service, and building construction) including pay-roll indexes and average hours and earnings, April to October 1940.....	July 201-14; Aug. 464-79; Sept. 759-76; Oct. 1035-8; Nov. 1256-72; Dec. 1571-91
Lumber and timber-products industry. Summary since 1899, by specified period, and by region.....	July 55-6
Mining, copper. Average numbers employed, by year 1880-1936.....	July 51
Public Federal Services, by branch of service, projects under United States agencies (PWA, USHA, RFC, WPA, NYA, CCC) and projects financed from regular Federal appropriations, May to October 1940.....	July 204-6; Aug. 468-70; Sept. 763-5; Oct. 1039-40; Nov. 1260-2; Dec. 1574-6
Road (highway) construction. From State funds, May to October 1940.....	July 206; Aug. 469; Sept. 764; Oct. 1039-40; Nov. 1262; Dec. 1576
Tung-oil industry. Mississippi, as of 1940.....	Aug. 310-11
WPA projects. WPA-operated and other, by month July 1938 to June 1939, and by type of project, wage-class and skill, June 21, 1939.....	Sept. 586-8
Employment statistics, foreign countries:	
Canada. Increase shown in September 1940.....	Dec. 1358
— Manufacturing industries, by year, 1933 and 1936-38.....	Oct. 876
— 1929, 1933, and 1937-40.....	Oct. 876-7
Great Britain. Changes. March 18, 1939, to September 23, 1939, and March 16, 1940, under war conditions.....	Nov. 1083-5
Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.). Distribution of population by employment group.....	Dec. 1369
Envelope industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 812
Evacuations. Great Britain. Children, from cities, as war measure. Allowances to persons furnishing board and room, according to age of child.....	Sept. 579
Explosives industries. Employment and production. Concentration in largest companies, year 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Factory inspection. International Association of Governmental Labor Officials resolution concerning, 1940 (text).....	Oct. 874
Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938:	
Child labor. Provisions concerning.....	Sept. 562
Court decisions concerning. (See Decisions of courts)	
Employees (number of) covered in 1940. By State, estimated.....	Dec. 1469-70
Exempted classes of employees. Redefined, October 14, 1940.....	Nov. 1202-3
Learner regulations. Changes August 2, 1940, and tabulation of provisions, by industries (10).....	Nov. 1203-6
Objectives, coverage, administration, operation first 2 years, interpretations and regulations, and enforcement.....	Sept. 551-63
Regulations by Wage and Hour Division. Amendment to simplify record keeping.....	July 157-8; Sept. 561
Family allowances, United States. Army and Navy enlisted men. World War schedule and function of War Risk Insurance Bureau concerning.....	Aug. 454-5
Family allowances, foreign countries:	
Italy. Increases, for factory workers, since outbreak of war.....	Aug. 305
Netherlands. Résumé of movement, and provisions of law of December 23, 1939.....	Aug. 455-7
New Zealand. Men in armed forces other than regular military, rates.....	July 32
Spain. Agriculture, extension of system to, under act of September 1, 1939.....	Aug. 457-8
Family estate. Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provision for establishment.....	Oct. 882
Federal Home Loan Bank Board (U. S. Government). Agencies administered by, and objectives.....	Aug. 280-2
Federal Home Loan Bank System (U. S. Government). Functions, and institutions chartered and supervised by.....	Aug. 280
Federal Housing Administration (U. S. Government). Functions, operations, and percentage distribution of mortgages, by size, 1939.....	Aug. 280-2
Federal National Mortgage Association (U. S. Government). Functions, and coverage of operations.....	Aug. 280-1
Federal Reserve Board (U. S. Government). Index of industrial production, new (1935-39=100), compared with former index (1923-25=100).....	Nov. 1197-1201

Federal savings and loan associations. Chartered and supervised by Federal Savings and Loan System.....	Page Aug. 280
Federal Savings & Loan Insurance Corporation (U. S. Government). Functions, and character of accounts protected by.....	Aug. 280
Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation (U. S. Government). Superseded July 1, 1940, by Surplus Marketing Administration.....	Nov. 1060
Fertilizer industry:	
Employment and production. Concentration in largest companies, year 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Minimum wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 817
Firemen, municipal. (See under Public Service.)	
Fireworks industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 813
Food consumption. Supplies available for 1940-41, and comparison with previous years (U. S. Bureau of Agricultural Economics report).....	Oct. 851-3
Food-stamp plan. Surplus Marketing Administration (U. S. Department of Agriculture). Objectives, methods and commodities distributed to May 31, 1940.....	Nov. 1060-3
Foreigners, employment of. Aircraft manufacturing. Beech Corporation, rule debarring..	Aug. 292
Forty Plus Club. (See under Older workers.)	
Foundries and machine shops. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940..	July 199;
Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466	
Funeral costs. (See Cooperation, Burial associations.)	
Furniture industry:	
Labor turn over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199;
Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467	
Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 815-16
Glass, flint, industry. Minimum-wage. Provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 813
Glass industry. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199;
Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 972; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467	
Glove industry. Learners, employment of. Provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act..	Nov. 1205
Gloves (work) industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 810
Governmental Labor Officials, International Association of. Annual meeting (26th), New York City, September 7-12, 1940; text of resolutions adopted; roster of officers.....	Oct. 873-5
Granite, dimension, industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 812
Greenbelt communities. Surplus land to be opened by Farm Security Administration for privately financed housing.....	Sept. 643
Guaranteed employment. (See Employment, stabilization of.)	
Handicapped workers:	
Employment possibilities, and obstacles. Summary.....	Nov. 1123-7
Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Provisions under.....	Sept. 559
Number (approximate) physically impaired; causes; and rehabilitation and employment possibilities.....	Nov. 1123-7
Handkerchief industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 812
Hardware industry. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199;
Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 972; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467	
Hat industry. Minimum wage. Order effective July 1, 1940.....	July 157
Hats and caps (men's) industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 811
Health and hygiene:	
Coal-mining area (Arkansas). Sickness and medical care, summary of study.....	Dec. 1421-4
Disability frequency of male industrial employees. Specified periods 1934-39, by malady causing.....	Sept. 679-81
Industrial policyholders. Record for 1939 (Metropolitan Life Ins. Co.).....	Sept. 681-4
Interstate quarantine and other regulations affecting railroad passengers and employees (U. S. Public Health Service). Summary.....	Dec. 1436
Migratory labor. California. Agricultural Workers' Health and Medical Association, plan and operation to July 1939.....	Aug. 333-7
— U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities. Summary of report.....	Dec. 1363-6
Occupational diseases, specific. (See under Industrial diseases and poisons.)	
Progress in 1930-40 decade. Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. report.....	Sept. 684
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary.....	Sept. 609

	Page
Health (or sickness) insurance. Canada (Ontario). Medical Services, Associated, Inc., comprising voluntary contributory plan. Summary of report to end of 1939	Aug. 337-8
Heating apparatus, steam and hot water. (See <i>inverted title</i> .)	
Hiring:	
Banks. Methods and policies, résumé of	Aug. 316-17
Great Britain. Labor Ministry to control, in engineering, building, and civil engineering, and (for male workers) in agriculture and coal mining	Sept. 575
Holidays. [Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary	Sept. 604-5
Home Owners' Loan Corporation (U. S. Government). Operations since 1933. Review of ..	Aug. 269-70
Home work. Puerto Rico. Extent of, and legislation concerning	Dec. 1328-31
Homes. Aged persons. (See <i>Aged persons, homes for</i> .)	
Hosiery industry:	
Full fashioned and seamless. Learners, employment of, provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act	Nov. 1205
Seamless. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940 ..	Oct. 810
Hours of work, United States:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (12), provisions, general	Aug. 294
Banks. Fair Labor Standards (Wage and Hour) Act, difficulties of adjustment to	Aug. 319
Court decisions concerning. (See <i>under Decisions of courts</i> .)	
Employees covered by Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Number working over 40 hours weekly (estimated)	Dec. 1469-70
Firemen, municipal. Platoon systems, single and double, and other plans, by city	July 13-26
40-hour week. To be exceeded only in emergency. National Defense Advisory Commission announcement September 1, 1940	Oct. 850
Legislation (Federal and State). Summary to 1940	Sept. 545-50
Railroads. Federal legislative provisions, summary	Dec. 1428-9
Rest periods. Up to 20 minutes in length included as working time under Fair Labor Standards Act	Aug. 418
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary	Sept. 603
Utah 8-hour law for underground mining held not applicable to employees constructing tunnel for water conveyance (Utah Sup. Ct.)	Nov. 1178
With wage rates. (See <i>Wages and hours</i> .)	
Workweek in effect up to July 12, 1940. Continued by Administrator of Fair Labor Standards Act, and reasons cited	Aug. 417-18
Hours of work, foreign countries:	
Brazil. Merchant marine. 8-hour day granted to all personnel by decree of June 29, 1939 ..	July 161
Great Britain. Long hours, ill effect on employees, and relief measures	Sept. 573-4
Soviet Union (USSR). 8-hour day and 6-day workweek established by decree June 27, 1940	Aug. 419-20
Housing, United States:	
Corporation, Federal (USHA). Establishment in Department of Labor, activities in 1918, and liquidation of investment	July 9-12
Defense program and recommendations by Twentieth Century Fund Committee. Summary of, and roster of committee members	Dec. 1412-16
Defense workers, Army and Navy, and other. USHA powers under law of June 28, 1940 ..	Aug. 267-8
Emergency Fleet Corporation of Shipping Board (U. S. Government). Activities for war labor in shipyards, 1918-20	July 6-9
Farm Security Administration (U. S. Government). Surplus land in 3 Greenbelt towns to be opened for privately financed homes	Sept. 643
Federal, for U. S. Government war workers. 1917-18 experience	July 5-12
Greenbelt towns. Plans for private development of areas available for expansion	Sept. 643
Legal provisions covering housing authorities and limited-dividend corporations, as of August 1, 1940. Summary by States	Oct. 917-25
Legislation. (See <i>under Laws and legislation, United States</i> .)	
Mortgages. FHA, on 1-family to 4-family buildings. Distribution by size	Aug. 281
Multiple dwellings, New York City. Classes defined by law, and number existing in 1929, 1938, and 1939, by section of city and class of building	Sept. 644-6
1-family houses, by cities (72), permit valuation, and "size of builder," 1938	Sept. 732-9
Public, agencies. Early experience and 1940 program	Aug. 267-82
PWA projects. Location (36 cities in 21 States), costs, size, type, and rents, March 1940 ..	Aug. 271-2
Rents. Sliding-scale system approved October 17, 1940, for Dupont Dwellings project (Alley Dwelling Authority, D. C.)	Dec. 1410-11
Rural. For low-income families. USHA activities	Aug. 279
— Under Federal program, 1935-39	Aug. 276-9
Woman workers. Residence halls built by U. S. Government in 1918	July 11
(See also <i>Building construction</i> .)	

Housing, foreign countries:

Finland. Committees formed, 1937, under law of 1927.....	Page Dec. 1442
Great Britain. Town planning for post-war period.....	Nov. 1158-9

Income:

Hawaii. Sources (tourist trade, Federal defense expenditures, ancillary industries), discussion of.....	Dec. 1309-12
National. Paid out, by type of payment, and by year, 1929 and 1932-39.....	Aug. 348-51
Workers' families. Funds made available from sources other than current income, 12 months in period 1934-36.....	July 137-8
Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, International Association of. Annual meeting (27th), September 9-12, 1940. Discussions, summary of, and roster of officers.....	Oct. 875
Industrial and labor conditions. (See Labor and industrial conditions.)	
Industrial diseases and poisons:	
Anthrax. Incidence and fatality 1919-38, with discussion of infection sources, sites of lesions, results of different types of treatment, and prevention.....	Oct. 946-50
Concentrations of certain common toxic substances, maximum (list in use by Massachusetts).....	Aug. 338-9
Older workers. Susceptibility to (discussed in report of N. Y. State Jt. Leg. Com. on Discrimination in Employment of Middle-aged).....	July 74-5
Industrial disputes, United States:	
Aircraft manufacture. Provisions in 12 agreements, summary.....	Aug. 300-2
Court decisions concerning. (See under Decisions of courts.)	
Railroads. Federal legislative provisions, summary.....	Dec. 1430-1
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions for adjustment, summary.....	Sept. 610-13
Strikes and lock-outs. Statistical analysis, March to August 1940.....	July 148-54; Aug. 407-14; Sept. 686-93; Oct. 956-63; Nov. 1182-9; Dec. 1445-53
— Statistics showing trend, by year, 1933-40, by month January 1939 to October 1940.....	July 147-8; Aug. 406-7; Sept. 685-6; Oct. 955-6; Nov. 1181-2; Dec. 1444-5

Industrial disputes, foreign countries:

Australia. Coal-mine strike March to May 1940. Settlement, and discussion of factors leading to strike.....	Aug. 320-1
Great Britain. Strikes and lock-outs. Labor Minister given authority July 10, 1940, to prevent by issuance of orders.....	Sept. 576-7

Insurance. (See under type of.)

International Labor Office. Personnel. Transfer, temporary, to Canada (Montreal), plan announced by Canada August 19, 1940.....	Sept. 585-6
---	-------------

International Labor Organization:

International Association of Governmental Labor Officials. Resolution concerning, 1940 (text).....	Oct. 873
Office personnel temporarily transferred to Canada (Montreal).....	Sept. 585-6
Report (1940) on methods of collaboration between public authorities, workers, and employers, summary.....	Sept. 613-21
Invalidity insurance. Sweden. Mutual-aid systems. Legal provision for, and 1938 operation.....	July 72-3

Iron and steel industry:

Accident statistics. By year, 1938 and 1939.....	Aug. 322-33
Blast-furnace, steel-works, and rolling-mill products. Employment and production, concentration in largest companies.....	Dec. 1529
Definition, and scope and method of BLS survey of earnings and hours, April 1938.....	Aug. 421-5
Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199; Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 972; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467
Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 814
Prevailing-wage localities established by Secretary of Labor (Perkins) under Public Contracts law, upheld (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 114-15

Ironwork, structural and ornamental. (See Metalwork, structural and ornamental.)

Jackets , leather and sheep-lined, industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 810
---	----------

Knit-goods industry. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 972; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467
--	--

Knitwear industry. Learners, employment of. Provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act.....	Nov. 1205
--	-----------

Labor and industrial conditions, United States:

Hawaii. Position of labor in the economy (Shoemaker).....	Dec. 1305-27
Puerto Rico. Needlework industry, résumé.....	Dec. 1328-34

Labor and industrial conditions, foreign countries:

Canada. Metal trades, skilled workers, increase in demand for.....	Nov. 1082
--	-----------

Labor and industrial conditions, foreign countries—Continued.

	Page
China (Chungking). Skilled workers, concentration of, as result of war, and trade and industrial unions formed.....	Nov. 1082-3
Germany (East Prussia). German and non-German workers, differences between in hours required and remuneration granted.....	Aug. 313-14
Japan. Government and military regulation, effect upon employment, wages, and hours.....	July 45-6
Latvia. Compulsory labor service under laws May 31 and June 7, 1940.....	Sept. 591
Lithuania. Registration of skilled workers required under law of June 1, 1940.....	Sept. 591-2
Spain. Demobilized wage earners, reemployment of. Laws of October 14, 1938, and May 16, 1939.....	Sept. 596
— Labor Charter (March 10, 1938). Summary of provisions and policies.....	Sept. 592-4
— Labor courts, establishment and functions under order of May 13, 1938, and provisions of decrees December 15, 1938, and June 15, 1939.....	Sept. 595-6
— Labor Inspectorate, extension of, under decree of March 19, 1938.....	Sept. 596
— Labor Ministry supplanted (law of Jan. 30, 1938) by Ministry for Trade Union Reorganization and Action, but reestablished (decree of Aug. 18, 1939).....	Sept. 594
— Spanish Phalanx, work of, under labor charter and amended rules of, approved by decree of July 31, 1939.....	Sept. 593, 594, 595
— Trade Union Organization and Action, Ministry for. Establishment authorized by law of January 30, 1938; functions transferred to reestablished Ministry of Labor by decree of August 18, 1939.....	Sept. 594
Labor and industrial relations, general:	
ILO report upon tripartite collaboration between public officials and workers' and employers' organizations. Summary.....	Sept. 613-21
State intervention in. ILO report, summary.....	Sept. 617-21
Labor and industrial relations, United States:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Union status and hiring policies.....	Aug. 291-2
Shipbuilding industry. Collective agreements (28), provisions of.....	Sept. 597-613
Labor and industrial relations, foreign countries:	
Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 879-80
Peru. Textile Labor Board created March 9, 1940, composition and functions.....	Aug. 312-13
Soviet Union (U. S. S. R.). Change of employment, voluntary, forbidden; and unauthorized leave of absence penalized; decree of June 27, 1940.....	Aug. 419-20
Labor cost. Manufacturing industries (20). Unit expense, indexes for specified periods 1919-39, by industry.....	July 33-7
Labor organizations, general. ILO report upon tripartite collaboration between public officials and workers' and employers' organizations, summary.....	Sept. 613-21
Labor organizations, United States:	
American Federation of Labor. Annual meeting, 1940, proceedings; membership statistics.....	Dec. 1456-9
Banks. Employee associations, résumé of.....	Aug. 315-16
Congress of Industrial Organizations. Annual meeting, 1940, proceedings, summarized.....	Dec. 1459-61
Hawaii. Problems concerning, and résumé of plantation and other unions.....	Dec. 1318-23
Labor organizations, foreign countries:	
Canada. Trades and Labor Congress. Proceedings of 1940 meeting summarized.....	Dec. 1462
China (Chungking). Trade and industrial. Membership and percentage distribution among occupations.....	Nov. 1082-3
Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 879
Japan. Effect of war conditions upon, 1940.....	July 45-6
Spain. Trade-union reorganization, decree of April 21, 1938, and July 31, 1939.....	Sept. 594-5
Labor turn-over:	
Machine-tool industry. Monthly rates January 1938 to July 1940.....	Nov. 1066-9
Manufacturing industries. Annual rates, by industry and combined, by year, 1931-39.....	Sept. 696-701
— Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 196-200;
Aug. 459-63; Sept. 704-8; Oct. 968-73; Nov. 1192-6; Dec. 1463-8	
— Monthly rates, January 1930 to December 1939.....	Sept. 702-4
Laws and legislation, United States, Federal and general:	
Alien Registration Act of 1940, provisions.....	Aug. 245-6; Sept. 569-71
Aliens. Federal and State provisions relating to.....	Aug. 245-9
— Restrictions upon employment (and such restrictions in Latin American republics).....	Dec. 1352-4
Attachment, property. Certain kinds and amounts exempted by States, provisions.....	Nov. 1055-6
Chattel mortgages. State provisions concerning, general.....	Nov. 1056
Child labor. Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, summary of provisions.....	Sept. 562
Cooperation. Act of June 1940 ("Model law") for District of Columbia.....	Aug. 365-6
Eight-hour day on public works. D. C. projects, 1892, and later acts extending coverage.....	Sept. 546
Employees engaged in interstate commerce. Act of 1907 and Adamson Act (8-hour law) of September 3, 1916, regulating hours.....	Sept. 546-7

Laws and legislation, United States, Federal and general—Continued.

	Page
Employment, stabilization of. Social Security Act of 1935 and Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, inducements offered to adopt plans.....	Aug. 283
Fair Labor Standards Act, 1938. Maximum workweek prescribed, flexibility of provisions.....	Sept. 545
— Provisions, coverage, and operation first 2 years.....	Sept. 551-63
Garnishment. Exemption of minimum amounts of wages from, in State laws.....	Nov. 1055-6
Health and hygiene. Railroads. Interstate quarantine and other regulations affecting passengers and employees (U. S. Public Health Service) summary.....	Dec. 1436
Hours of work. Provisions limiting, Federal; and State provisions, by sex.....	Sept. 545-50
Housing authorities and limited-dividend corporations. Provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 917-25
Housing. Emergency, for workers in national defense industries (Title II, Public Act 671) June 28, 1940, provisions.....	Aug. 267-8
— Federal Housing Act and United States Housing Act, 1937, provisions, and supplementary State laws.....	Oct. 912-16
— For shipyard laborers, act of March 1, 1918.....	July 6
— For war needs (civilian workers). Act of May 16, 1918.....	July 6-7
— Home Owners' Loan Act, June 1933, operations under.....	Aug. 269-70
— National Housing Act of 1934, and amendment, provisions.....	Aug. 281
— National Industrial Recovery Act, 1933, effect of provisions upon program.....	Aug. 270, 272, 276, 278
— Navy and War Departments, for defense-program workers, law of June 28, 1940.....	Aug. 267
Legislative sessions, 1941. Date of convening and length of session, by States.....	Nov. 1176-7
Maximum workweek. Fair Labor Standards Act provision.....	Sept. 545
Night work. Woman workers. State provisions regulating or prohibiting, summary.....	Sept. 550
Property and wage exemption from garnishment and attachment. State provisions, general.....	Nov. 1055-6
Public contracts (Walsh-Healey Act). Amendment granting right of suspension to President (Public, No. 671, 76th Cong.).....	Sept. 546
— 8-hour day and 40-hour week, and overtime provisions.....	Sept. 545-6
— Legislation prior to, summary of.....	Oct. 806-7
Public works. From 1892 to 1940, résumé.....	Sept. 546
Railroads. Employees, summary of measures for benefit of.....	Dec. 1428-36
— Employers' Liability Act, 1908 (amended 1910 and 1939), summary of provisions.....	Dec. 1434-5
— Industrial disputes, legislation concerning, and conciliation machinery provided for, summary.....	Dec. 1430-1
— Retirement system, summary of acts and provisions.....	Dec. 1431-3
— Safety, Federal measures summarized.....	Dec. 1435-6
— Unemployment insurance, summary of provisions.....	Dec. 1433-4
— Wages and hours, to 1940, summary.....	Dec. 1428-9
Rivers and harbors, dredging of. Included (act of March 3, 1913) under provisions of 1892 law prescribing 8-hour day for public-works employees.....	Sept. 546
Selective Training and Service Act of 1940. General provisions and those affecting labor and industry.....	Oct. 834-5
Small loans. Regulatory provisions summarized.....	Nov. 1056
Unemployment compensation. Disqualification for, by participation in industrial disputes. State provisions summarized.....	Dec. 1375-91
— State provisions as of October 1, 1940, tabular analysis, by State.....	Nov. 1094-1103
Usury. State provisions to combat excessive interest charges, summary of.....	Nov. 1055
Wage assignment. State provisions, summary of.....	Nov. 1055
War Risk Insurance Act. Amendments in 1917 and 1919 affecting family allowances.....	Aug. 454-5
Woman workers. Hours, day and night work, State provisions limiting, summary.....	Sept. 549-50
Laws and legislation, United States, by States:	
Alabama. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 917
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Alaska. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Arizona. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 917
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Arkansas. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 917
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
California. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 917
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Colorado. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 918
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Connecticut. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 918
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100

Laws and legislation, United States, by States—Continued.

	Page
Delaware. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 918
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 923
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
District of Columbia. Cooperation (consumers') law enacted June 1940 (model cooperative law), provisions.....	Aug. 365-6
— Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 918
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 923
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Florida. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 918
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 923
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Georgia. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 918
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Hawaii. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1100
Idaho. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Illinois. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 923
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Indiana. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Iowa. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Kansas. Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 923
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Kentucky. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Louisiana. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Maine. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Maryland. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Massachusetts. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 919
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 923
— Unemployment compensation, provisions as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Michigan. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Unemployment compensation, provisions as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Minnesota. Unemployment compensation, provisions as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Mississippi. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Missouri. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Montana. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Nebraska. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1101
Nevada. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
New Hampshire. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
New Jersey. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 924
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
New Mexico. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
New York. Civil Service discrimination against older workers barred by resolution of February 7, 1940.....	July 79
— Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 920
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 924
— Housing, multiple-dwelling act, 1929, types of buildings covered by, and number of permanent residence units in 1929, 1938, and 1939.....	Sept. 644-6
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
North Carolina. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 924
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
North Dakota. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102

Laws and legislation, United States, by States—Continued.

	Page
Ohio. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 924
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
Oklahoma. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
Oregon. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
Pennsylvania. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 924
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
Puerto Rico. 8-hour day, weekly payment, home work, employment of women and children, and minimum wage for women, summary of legislation, 1919 to 1939.....	Dec. 1331-2
— Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
Rhode Island. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
South Carolina. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 921
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 924
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1102
South Dakota. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Tennessee. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Texas. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 925
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Utah. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Vermont. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Virginia. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Housing, limited-dividend corporations, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 925
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Washington. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
West Virginia. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Wisconsin. Housing authorities, provisions in effect as of August 1, 1940.....	Oct. 922
— Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Wyoming. Unemployment compensation, provisions in effect as of October 1, 1940.....	Nov. 1103
Laws and legislation, foreign countries:	
Argentina. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-3
Baltic States. Latvia and Lithuania, labor laws passed in May and June 1940.....	Sept. 591-2
Bolivia. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
Brazil. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
— Merchant marine, 8-hour day granted to all personnel, decree of June 29, 1939.....	July 161
— Minimum wage, decrees of January 1936, April 1938, and May 1940.....	July 158-60
— Retirement benefits under Government plans for persons under 60, suspended by decree-law August 5, 1940.....	Nov. 1119
Canada. Accident prevention, order in council requiring continuance of.....	Dec. 1362
— Department of National War Services Act, July 12, 1940, provisions.....	Sept. 580-1
— Income War Tax Act amended, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 858
— National Labor Supply Council, established by order in council No. 2686.....	Aug. 304
— National Resources Mobilization Act, June 21, 1940, provisions.....	Sept. 580
— National Resources Mobilization Act, registration under, August 1940.....	Oct. 855-6
— Orders in council covering appointment of oils administrator, machine tools controller, and power controller.....	Dec. 1361
— Rentals. Regulatory power given Wartime Prices and Trade Board, orders in council December 5, 1939, and September 11, 1940.....	Nov. 1078-80
— Special War Revenue Act, amendment to, text of provision.....	Oct. 857-8
— Unemployment Insurance Act, August 7, 1940, summary of provisions.....	Dec. 1406-9
— War-labor policy, order in Council of June 19, 1940, summary of provisions.....	Aug. 303-4
— Wartime Industries Control Board, order in council, July 2, 1940.....	Sept. 581-2
Chile. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1852-4
Colombia. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1852-4
— Construction workers. Dismissal compensation, medical assistance and hospitalization, and safety inspection, provided for by law of December 19, 1940.....	July 70-1
Costa Rica. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1852-3

Laws and legislation, foreign countries—Continued.

	Page
Cuba. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
— Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions concerning wages and hours; work of women and minors; labor organization and labor and industrial relations; aliens; protection of nationals; social insurance and welfare; cooperatives; family estates.....	Oct. 878-82
Denmark. Cooperation between provincial governments and employment and unemployment organizations, act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 584
— Credit fund for furtherance of trade and employment, law of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 584
— Dividend paying by corporations limited, act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 583
— Industrial disputes, compulsory arbitration provided by act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 583
— Price control by Minister of Commerce, act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 583
— Unemployment-benefit funds increased account reduced earnings of contributing workers, act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 583
— Wage adjustment to January 1940 cost-of-living index, act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 583
— Work-spreading system, to reduce unemployment, act of May 28, 1940.....	Sept. 582
Dominican Republic. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
— Minimum wage, law of April 19, 1940.....	July 162-3
Ecuador. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-3
El Salvador. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
Finland. Accident insurance (including persons sailing on seas) summary to 1939.....	Dec. 1441-2
— Defense measures, 1930-39, summary.....	Dec. 1442-3
— Housing, act of 1927.....	Dec. 1442
— Labor measures, 1917 to 1939, summary.....	Dec. 1440-1
— Old-age pensions, act of 1939.....	Dec. 1442
— Vacations with pay, act of April 21, 1939.....	July 38
— War-risk insurance, summary of 1939 acts.....	Dec. 1442-3
France. Vacations with pay, decrees of November 10, 1939, and April 13, 1940.....	July 38-40
Germany. Compulsory labor service, opposition penalized by orders issued January 30, 1940, and March 12, 1940.....	Sept. 584
Great Britain. Contributory Pensions Act, amendments March 21, 1940.....	July 70
— Control of Employment Act of 1939 superseded by Emergency Powers Defense Act of 1940.....	July 32
— Emergency Powers (Defense) Act of 1940, provisions.....	July 31-2
— Pensions, old-age and widows', provided by amendments to British Contributory Pensions Acts, March 21, 1940.....	July 70
— Unemployment insurance. Amendment, July 1940, increasing contributions and benefits, and extending coverage.....	Sept. 633-5
— Workmen's Compensation (Supplementary Allowances, No. 2) Act of 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 888-90
— (England and Wales). Agricultural Wages (Regulation) Act. Amendment adopted April 25, 1940, providing for national, instead of regional, minimum rates.....	Aug. 418-19
Guatemala. Aliens, restrictions upon employment, summary of.....	Dec. 1352-4
Haiti. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
Honduras. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352, 1354
Japan. National General Mobilization Act, 1939, regulating employment, wages, and hours.....	July 45-6
Latin America. Aliens, employment of, summary of restrictions in various countries.....	Dec. 1352-4
Latvia. Compulsory labor service, laws of May 31 and June 7, 1940.....	Sept. 591
Lithuania. Registration of skilled workers required under law passed June 1, 1940.....	Sept. 591-2
Mexico. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
Netherland India. Workmen's compensation, ordinance of 1939.....	July 112-13
Netherlands. Family-allowance scheme, act of December 23, 1939.....	Aug. 455-7
Nicaragua. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-3
Panama. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-3
Paraguay. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-3
Peru. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
— Textile industry. Labor board and school of technology (Lima) established, decrees March 9, 1940.....	Aug. 312-13
Soviet Union (U. S. S. R.). Change of employment, voluntary, forbidden, and unauthorized leave of absence penalized, decree of June 27, 1940.....	Aug. 419-20
— 8-hour day and 6-day workweek established, decree of June 27, 1940.....	Aug. 419-20
Spain. Demobilized soldiers, reemployment of, decrees October 14, 1938, and May 16, 1939.....	Sept. 596
— Family allowances, agriculture, provided for by law of September 1, 1939.....	Aug. 457-8
— Labor charter (March 10, 1938), provisions and policies.....	Sept. 592-4
— Labor courts, establishment and functions under order of May 13, 1938, and provisions of decrees December 15, 1938, and June 15, 1939.....	Sept. 595-6

Laws and legislation, foreign countries—Continued.

Spain. Labor inspectorate, decree of March 19, 1938.....	Page Sept. 596
— Labor Ministry supplanted (law of Jan. 30, 1938) by new organization, but reestablished (decree of Aug. 18, 1939).....	Sept. 594
— Spanish Falanx (for trade-union control), amended rules approved by decree of July 31, 1939.....	Sept. 595
— Trade-unions required to affiliate with central organizations, decree of April 21, 1938.....	Sept. 594
Sweden. Pensions, old-age, invalidity, and other, various laws, June 1935 to March 1938.....	July 72-3
Uruguay. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
Venezuela. Aliens, restrictions upon employment.....	Dec. 1352-4
Lay-offs:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective-agreement provisions, general.....	Aug. 298-9
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary.....	Sept: 606-7
Learners:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (11), provisions, general.....	Aug. 299
Employment at subminimum rates. Changes August 2, 1940, in regulations under Fair Labor Standards Act, and tabulation of provisions by industries (10).....	Nov. 1202-6
Fair Labor Standards (Wage and Hour) Act. Regulations concerning.....	Sept. 559-60
Leather-products (miscellaneous) industry. Definition; characteristics; and scope of BLS wage survey, 1939.....	Oct. 987-94
Legislatures, State. Sessions to be held in 1941, and date of convening.....	Nov. 1176-7
Liability insurance, employers. Lead poisoning through unusual working conditions held accidental and within coverage (U. S. Cir. Ct. of App. for 5th Cir.).....	Oct. 953
Life insurance:	
Group. Bank employees, contributory and noncontributory plans.....	Aug. 318
Low-income families. Summary of survey by Securities and Exchange Commission (for Temporary National Economic Committee).....	Dec. 1335-51
Savings in, by workers' families. 12 months in period, 1934-36.....	July 132-4
Loan sharks. (See under Small loans.)	
Loans, small. (See inverted title.)	
Luggage (and saddlery) industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 813
Luggage industry. Definition; characteristics; and scope of BLS wage survey, 1939.....	Oct. 974-9
Lumber industry:	
Decline in given area (Brazil, Ind.) account timber supply exhausted.....	Sept. 588-91
Planing mills. Labor turn-over, rate, September 1940.....	Dec. 1467
Sawmills. Labor turn-over, monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 973; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468	
Technology, productivity, and employment. Summary, 1919-36.....	July 53-61
Machine-tool industry:	
Labor turn-over, monthly rates. April to September 1940.....	July 200;
Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 972; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1467	
— January 1938 to July 1940.....	Nov. 1066-9
Manufacturing industries. Canada, census statistics, by year, 1933 and 1936-38.....	Oct. 876
Married women. Employed, National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs survey, findings of.....	Dec. 1371-4
Maternity and infant welfare. Cuba, tax on salaries and wages (except in agriculture) to provide benefits.....	Sept. 729
Meat-packing industries. Wholesale. Employment and production. Concentration in largest companies, year 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Medical and hospital service, United States:	
Arkansas. Coal mining population, summary of study.....	Dec. 1421-4
Banks. Group hospitalization and other plans.....	Aug. 318-19
Coal-mining area (Ark.) Study by agricultural experiment station of State university..	Dec. 1421-4
Migratory labor (Calif. and Ariz.). Agricultural Workers' Health and Medical Association. Plan, and operation to July 1939.....	Aug. 333-7
Medical and hospital service, foreign countries:	
Canada (Ontario). Medical Services, Associated, Inc., plan of.....	Aug. 337-8
Colombia. Construction workers. Provision in law of December 19, 1939.....	July 71
Metalwork, structural and ornamental. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, September 1940.....	Dec. 1468
Migration:	
Labor. Agricultural and industrial. Conditions among workers and recommendations for improvement.....	Dec. 1363-6
— U. S. Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, report of; summary.....	Dec. 1363-9

	Page
Millinery industry. Learners, employment of. Provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act.....	Nov. 1206
Minimum wage, United States:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Rates provided for in collective agreements (9).....	Aug. 292
Beauty-school instructor. Not included under State provision for beauty-shop operators (Decision Wash. Sup. Ct.).....	Oct. 952
Clothing industry (women's and children's). Rate set July 15, 1940.....	Oct. 902
Contracts (U. S. Government). Determinations to August 31, 1940, under Walsh-Healey Act, tabulation of provisions, by industry.....	Oct. 809-19
Employees covered by provisions of Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Numbers, by State, (estimated).....	Dec. 1469-70
Hat industry. Rates established under Wage and Hour law, effective July 1, 1940.....	July 157
International Association of Governmental Labor Officials, resolution concerning, 1940 (text).....	Oct. 874-5
Public contracts. (See Minimum wage, Contracts, U. S. Government.)	
Puerto Rico. Needlework industry, Wage and Hour Division order of November 25, 1940.....	Dec. 1333-4
(See also Fair Labor Standards Act.)	
Minimum wage, foreign countries:	
Brazil. Rates, including payments in kind, by State and locality, under decree law of May 1940.....	July 158-60
Chile. Textile workers. Rate established by official circular, effective January 1, 1940.....	July 162
Dominican Republic. Law of April 19, 1940, provisions.....	July 162-3
Great Britain (England and Wales). Agricultural Wages Board empowered to fix national rates.....	Aug. 418-19
Haiti. Public service. Rate fixed by labor law August 10, 1934.....	Aug. 453
Mining, United States:	
Coal. (Anthracite and bituminous). Injuries. Frequency rates, by year, 1930-39.....	Dec. 1417-18
— (Bituminous). Arkansas area, sickness and medical care.....	Dec. 1421-4
— Decline, account worked-out condition of mines (Brazil, Ind.) and effect upon community.....	Sept. 588-91
— Federal order fixing age minimum, effective September 1, 1940.....	Oct. 892
Copper. Employment and production 1880-1936, productivity of labor 1911-36, and outlook for future.....	July 50-3
Metalliferous. Accident-frequency rates, by year 1931-39, and summary of experience, by kind of mine, 1938.....	Dec. 1418-20
Nonmetal. Accident-frequency rates, by year, 1931-39, and summary of experience, 1938.....	Dec. 1418-20
Mining, Australia. Coal. Industrial dispute begun March 11, settled May 1940; discussion of factors leading to strike.....	Aug. 320-1
Mortgage loan agencies. Federal. Functions, and character of housing covered, 1939.....	Aug. 279-82
Motor vehicles. Use of to carry other vehicles. Rules subject to State (Pa.) regulation (U. S. Sup. Ct.).....	July 116
National Citizens' Committee. Established by White House Conference on Children in a Democracy; text of statement by.....	Sept. 567-8
National Committee for Conservation of Manpower in Defense Industries. Appointment July 28, and functions, announced by Secretary of Labor.....	Sept. 568-9
National Defense Advisory Commission (U. S. Government). Policy as to hours, wages, working conditions, etc. Announcement of, September 1, 1940.....	Oct. 850-1
National Labor Relations Board (U. S. Government). Court decisions concerning. (See Decisions of courts.)	
National Youth Administration (U. S. Government). (See under Youth.)	
Nationals, protection of. Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 880
Neckwear (men's) industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 810
Needlework industry. Puerto Rico. General conditions, wages, and hours. Findings of survey by U. S. Wage and Hour Division.....	Dec. 1328-34
Negro workers:	
Iron and steel industry. Distribution by branch, region, skill, and occupation, April 1938, and comparison of earnings with those of whites.....	Nov. 1139-49
Virginia. Earnings compared with earnings of white workers, by industry and sex, 1938.....	Nov. 1140-50
Negroes. Youth as affected by depression period.....	Aug. 352-5
Night work. Shipbuilding industry. Night shift provisions in collective agreements.....	Sept. 603-4

Nutrition:

	Page
Adequacy. Standards of, and percentages of workers' families reaching.....	Aug. 263-6
Diets. Daily amounts of specified nutrients required for moderately active man.....	Aug. 264
— Good, fair, poor. Percentages of white and Negro families obtaining each grade; and discussion of nutritional requirements.....	Aug. 265
— Percentage of white and Negro families making sufficient expenditure for (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 263-4
Food-consumption habits. Workers' families, variation from city to city.....	Aug. 262-3
Negro families. Expenditures for food compared with those of white families (12 months in period 1934-36).....	Aug. 258-64

Occupational disease. Employee's right of action against employer for case not covered by workmen's compensation provisions, upheld (Fed. Dist. Ct. in Colo.).....	Oct. 953-4
Occupational outlook. (See Employment outlook.)	

Occupations. Great Britain. Census, April 1940, to ascertain number employed.....	July 30-1
---	-----------

Old-age insurance, United States:

Company plan to supplement Federal system (United States Steel Corporation).....	Oct. 888
Group retirement plan to supplement Federal system (N. Y. State League of Savings and Loan Associations).....	Oct. 887-8

Old-age insurance. Sweden. Compulsory system. Operation in 1938.....	July 72
--	---------

Older workers, United States:

Accident, liability to. Experience in United States, Switzerland, and Austria.....	Oct. 789-804
Forty Plus Club (New York City). Activities, first half 1940.....	Sept. 623
Navy Department (U. S. Government). Age limits lifted for defense-program workers.....	Sept. 622-3
New York Joint Legislative Committee on Discrimination in Employment of Middle-aged. Summarized report.....	July 74-9
Veterans (war), placement of. Toledo (Ohio) employment-security-center plan, 1940....	Nov. 1120-2
War Department (U. S. Government). Age limits lifted for defense-program workers....	Sept. 622-3

Older workers, foreign countries:

Austria. Accident, liability to. Experience summarized.....	Oct. 790, 798
Canada. Increased employment of, under war conditions.....	Nov. 1082
Switzerland. Accident, liability to. Experience summarized.....	Oct. 790-804

Overtime, United States:

Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (12), provisions, general.....	Aug. 294
Machine shops. Practices in effect, and rates paid, 1938 and 1939.....	Nov. 1220
Payment according to local recognized practices (National Defense Advisory Commission announcement September 1, 1940).....	Oct. 850
Payment to be continued under Fair Labor Standards Act. Ruling of July 12, 1940....	Aug. 417-18
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary.....	Sept. 604
Overtime. Italy. Wartime provisions in factories.....	Aug. 305

Paints and varnishes. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
	Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1467

Paper and pulp industry:

Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
	Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1467
Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 818

Pensions:

Banks. Plans summarized.....	Aug. 318
Great Britain. Old-age and widows', provided for by amendments to British Contributory Pensions Acts, March 21, 1940.....	July 70
Sweden. Old-age, invalidity, and other, 1938, summary.....	July 72-3

Personnel policies. Banks. Study by Industrial Relations section of Princeton University summarized.....	Aug. 315-19
--	-------------

Petroleum refining. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
	Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1467

Photographic supplies. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 817
--	----------

Physical examinations. Banks. Policies concerning summarized.....	Aug. 319
---	----------

Pipe, cast iron. (See inverted title.)

Placement. (See under Employment agencies.)

Planning, town. Great Britain. Post-war period, preparation for.....	Nov. 1158-9
--	-------------

Population:

Egypt. Relation of land problem to.....	July 43-5
Haiti, Republic of. Total, and density per square mile.....	Aug. 453
Hawaii. Selected years, 1832 to 1939; distribution, 1938, by racial origins.....	Dec. 1306-9
Soviet Union (U. S. S. R.). Distribution by class, 1939.....	Dec. 1369

Price fixing. Italy. Maximum set by Interministerial Price Committee, March 9, 1940....	Aug. 305
---	----------

Printing and publishing. Book and job, and newspaper. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	Page July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1467
Prison labor. Industrial training of prisoners (survey by U. S. Attorney General, résumé). Nov. 1156-7	
Production:	
(And pay rolls.) Manufacturing industries (20). Indexes, specified periods, 1919-39, by industry.....	July 37
Concentration of in large firms, 8 selected industries.....	Dec. 1529
Industrial. Federal Reserve Board indexes, revised. Durable and nondurable goods and minerals, specified years 1919 to June 1940; by industry, specified years 1929 to June 1940.....	Nov. 1197-1201
Productivity of labor:	
Cement industry. Technological changes affecting, 1919-38.....	July 47-50
Lumber and timber-products industry. Changes from 1919 to 1936.....	July 59-60
Manufacturing, mining, and steam railroads. Changes in, and earnings and hours, 1909-32 (Bowden).....	Sept. 517-44
Mining, copper. Man-hours worked and average output per man-hour, by year, 1911-38	July 50-3
Mining industry, iron. Trend, 1880-1937, and technological factors affecting.....	Oct. 883-6
Profit sharing. International Harvester Co., for employees in service 3 years or over.....	Sept. 631-3
Promotion:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (3), provisions, general.....	Aug. 297-8
Army and Navy (U. S. Government). Enlisted personnel, including reenlistment.....	July 2-3
Banks. Policies, and basis required.....	Aug. 317
Public contracts. (See Contracts, U. S. Government.)	
Public service. Firemen, municipal. Hours of work, systems in operation in various cities..	July 13-26
Quarries. Injuries. Frequency rates by year, 1931-39, and experience, 1937, by kind of product quarried.....	Dec. 1420-1
Racial distribution:	
Cincinnati. Employed and unemployed persons, percent, by year, 1933-40.....	Dec. 1368
Hawaii. Status, 1938, and factors affecting.....	Dec. 1306-9
Radio, radio-tube, and phonograph industries. Employment and production. Concentration in largest companies, year 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Radios and phonographs. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
	Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1467
Railroads, United States:	
Accident statistics. By year, 1930-39.....	Nov. 1171-5
Legislation, Federal, beneficial to employees. Summary to 1940.....	Dec. 1428-36
Retirement benefits. Under Federal law, to end of June 1940, summary.....	Nov. 1104-6
Railroads. Mexico. Vacation rates offered to workers by National Railway Administration..	July 40
Raincoats (men's) industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 811
Rayon and allied products. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200;
	Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1467
Reconstruction Finance Corporation Mortgage Co. (U. S. Government). Functions and regulations.....	Aug. 280
Records. Employers. Fair Labor Standards Act, regulations concerning.....	July 157-8; Sept. 561
Recreation. Community movement, 1939. National Recreation Committee report, summary.....	Sept. 652-3
Reemployment:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective-agreement provisions, general.....	Aug. 298-9
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary.....	Sept. 606-7
Reenlistment. Army and Navy (U. S. Government). Allowances granted.....	July 2-3
Rehabilitation. Handicapped persons, and employment possibilities for.....	Nov. 1125-6
Relief. Negro youth. Proportion receiving in May 1935.....	Aug. 354
Rest periods. Up to 20 minutes, included as working time under Fair Labor Standards Act..	Aug. 418
Restaurants, low-cost. Venezuela (Caracas). Plan and operation 1939-40.....	Dec. 1569
Retail prices, United States:	
Coal, anthracite and bituminous. Average rates June and September 1940, and comparison with previous year.....	Sept. 755-8; Dec. 1549-51
Electricity. Changes in residential rates, March to June, and June to September 1940.....	Aug. 498-9; Nov. 1286-7
Foods. Average by item, 51 large cities combined, indexes (1935-39=100) of commodity groups and of all items combined, by city, May to October 1940, and comparison with previous year.....	July 223-7;
	Aug. 492-7; Sept. 750-5; Oct. 1024-8; Nov. 1280-5; Dec. 1544-9
Gas. Changes in residential rates March to June, and June to September 1940.....	Aug. 499-500; Nov. 1287
Indexes revised to 1935-39 base. Reasons for differences from former index.....	July 227-8

Retail prices, foreign countries:	Page
Argentina (Buenos Aires). Household items (21), 1929, 1939, and May 1940.....	Dec. 1568
Soviet Union (U.S.S.R.). Food. Rates, January 1, 1939, and January 24, 1940, by item...	Aug. 500-1
Retirement, United States:	
Banks. Increase in number of assured-income plans, 1930 to 1940.....	Aug. 318
Company plan. Annuity to supplement Federal old-age insurance (United States Steel Corporation).....	Oct. 888
— Fund to be provided through employee savings and extra-compensation system (International Harvester Co.).....	Sept. 631-3
Group plan. Annuity to supplement Federal old-age insurance (N. Y. State League of Savings and Loan associations).....	Oct. 887-8
Railroad employees. Benefits, statistics 1939-40.....	Nov. 1104-6
— Federal legislative provisions, summary.....	Dec. 1431-3
Retirement. Brazil. Benefits, under Government plans, for persons under 60, suspended by decree law August 5, 1940.....	Nov. 1119
Rubber industry:	
Boots and shoes. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Tires. Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 972; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Saddlery (and luggage) industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 813
Safety:	
Defense industries. National Committee (U. S. Dept. of Labor) for Conservation of manpower in. Functions and plan of operation.....	Sept. 568-9
Railroads. Federal legislative provisions, summary.....	Dec. 1435-6
(See also Accident prevention.)	
Salesmen. Classes exempted from provisions of Fair Labor Standards Act. Definition broadened October 14, 1940.....	Nov. 1203
Savings:	
Plans. Company, for employees. International Harvester Co., with profit sharing after 3 years.....	Sept. 631-3
Workers' families. Changes in assets and liabilities, 12 months in period 1934-36.....	July 119-39
— White and Negro. Principal savings items, 12 months in period 1934-36.....	July 136
Sawmills. (See under Lumber industry.)	
Seniority:	
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (11), provisions, general.....	Aug. 295-6
Collective agreements. Employees entering military service, provisions concerning...	Oct. 859-60
Shipbuilding industry. Collective-agreement provisions, summary of.....	Sept. 605-6
Sharecroppers. (See under Agriculture.)	
Shifts. Collective-agreement provisions. Night shifts; continuous operations; differentials, night and day, general and in selected industries; rotation; choice of shift; and miscellaneous provisions.....	Oct. 860-72
Ship clerks (docks), San Francisco. Arbitration award on wages and paid vacations, and section on vacations added to agreement, 1940 (text).....	Nov. 1086-93
Shipbuilding industry:	
Companies under agreement with labor organizations, August 1940. List of.....	Sept. 596-9
Labor turn-over. Monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 973; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Shoes, welt, men's, industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 811
Sick leave:	
Banks. Policies concerning, general.....	Aug. 318
Cuba (Habana). Candy industry, provisions.....	Sept. 729
Sickness statistics. Industrial employees, male. Disability frequency, by malady, specified periods 1934-39. (Review of 1940 Public Health reports).....	Sept. 679-81
Silk and rayon goods. Labor turn-over, monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 973; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Slaughtering and meat packing. Labor turn-over, monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 973; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Small-arms ammunition, explosives, and related products industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 818
Small-claims courts:	
District of Columbia. Operation, since establishment April 1938, summary.....	Dec. 1425-7
Procedures by plaintiff and defendant, outline (D. C.).....	Dec. 1425-7

	Page
Small loans. Usurious charges. "Loan shark" operations. Geographic distribution, legal remedies available to borrowers and State, and wage earner's problem.....	Nov. 1051-9
Soap industry:	
Employment and production. Concentration in largest companies, year 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 817
Social insurance:	
Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions for system.....	Oct. 881
Finland. Accident, old-age, and war-risk, summary.....	Dec. 1441-3
Social security. (See under type of.)	
Specialty accounting supply manufacturing. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 817
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus. Labor turn-over, monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 973; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Stores, retail. Lessor held to be employer under hours-of-labor law (Mass. Sup. Jud. Ct.)..	Oct. 951-2
Strikes and lock-outs. (See under Industrial disputes.)	
Structural and ornamental ironwork. (See Metalwork, structural and ornamental.)	
Student work. NYA program. Summary, and amounts allotted, by States.....	Oct. 893-4
Surplus Marketing Administration (U. S. Government). Establishment, July 1, 1940, in place of Federal Surplus Commodities Corporation; objectives; and summary of operations under preceding organization..	Nov. 1060-8
Tag industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940..	Oct. 813
Technological changes:	
Cement industry. Affecting labor productivity.....	July 47-50
Lumber industry. Summary of causes and nature of adjustments.....	July 53-5
Mining, copper. Improvements in methods, last half century.....	July 52
Mining, iron. Effect upon decline in employment opportunities.....	Oct. 883-6
Older workers, displacement of (discussed in report of N. Y. State Joint Legislative Committee on Discrimination in Employment of Middle-aged).....	July 75-6
Telephone industry. Independent. Learners, employment of, provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act.....	Nov. 1206
Textile industry, United States. Learners, employment of, provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act.....	Nov. 1205
Textile industry, Chile. Minimum rates established, effective January 1, 1940.....	July 162
Tires, rubber. (See under Rubber industry.)	
Tobacco industry:	
Cigarettes, chewing and smoking tobacco, and snuff. Employment and production, concentration in largest companies, 1935.....	Dec. 1529
Cigars and cigarettes. Labor turn-over, monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	July 199;
Aug. 462; Sept. 707; Oct. 971; Nov. 1195; Dec. 1466	
Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 815
Transfers. Aircraft manufacturing, between plants. Collective agreements (5), provisions, general.....	Aug. 296-7
Truck and bus companies. Nonoperating employees engaged in interstate commerce, subject to Wage and Hour Division's rulings instead of to ICC rulings (U. S. Sup. Ct. decision).....	July 115-16
Tung oil. Survey of industry, China and United States, and other countries interested in production.....	Aug. 308-11
Underwear, men's, industry. Minimum-wage provisions under Public Contracts Act, to August 31, 1940.....	Oct. 811
Unemployment, United States:	
Applicants to Public Employment Service. Occupational and industrial experience, distribution as of April 1940.....	Oct. 836-50
Brazil, Ind. (due to decline in mining, lumber, and clay-products industries). Problems discussed.....	Sept. 588-91
Cincinnati. Statistics by race, 1940 and previous years.....	Dec. 1367-9
Hawaii. Extent, factors affecting situation, and relief measures.....	Dec. 1323-7
Interfaith Conference on (Washington, June 1940). Findings and recommendations....	July 41-3
Puerto Rico. Problems due to oversupply of labor and other factors.....	Dec. 1329-30
Unemployment, foreign countries:	
Canada. Improvement in situation as result of wartime conditions; statistics, 1929, 1933, and 1937-40.....	Oct. 876-7
— Registration of skilled and semiskilled workers for industrial war work, 1940.....	July 30
Finland. Government measures to combat, 1926 and later, summary.....	Dec. 1440
Great Britain. Ages and occupational status of registrants.....	Aug. 311-12
— Changes in registration, 1939 to 1940, and remedial measures undertaken.....	Sept. 572-3
Sweden. Building-construction industry, 1940, as compared with 1939.....	Dec. 1370

Unemployment compensation, United States:		Page
Claims for and benefits paid. May to December 1940.....	Aug. 344-7; Sept. 628-31; Nov. 1110-14; Dec. 1396-1405	July 66-9;
Disqualification for, in case of industrial disputes. State legal provisions summarized.....		Dec. 1375-91
Loss of time account strike, by employee not participating, held compensable by New Jersey Supreme Court.....		Nov. 1178-9
Railroads. Federal legislative provisions, summary.....		Dec. 1433-4
State legal provisions. Coverage, financial provisions, benefits, and qualifications for, waiting period, legal aspects, and tabulation by State, as of October 1, 1940.....		Nov. 1094-1103
Unemployment insurance, foreign countries:		
Canada. Act of August 7, 1940, summary of provisions.....		Dec. 1406-7
Great Britain. Contributions and benefits increased by law, July 1940.....		Sept. 633-5
— Nonmanual workers earning over £250 annually included by amendment (July 1940) to law.....		Sept. 633-5
United States Housing Authority (U. S. Government):		
Defense workers' housing projects. Law June 28, 1940, provisions.....		Aug. 267-8
Projects (41). Number of units contained, average rental per unit, and income class served, as of 1939-40.....		Aug. 275-6
PWA projects taken over. Administration experience, features of.....		Aug. 273-5
Rural homes for low-income families. Activities.....		Aug. 279
Vacation transportation. Mexico. Rates offered to workers by National Railway Administration.....		July 40
Vacations with pay, United States:		
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements (6), provisions, general.....		Aug. 294-5
Banks. Policies summarized.....		Aug. 319
California (southern). Summaries of company plans by type, and trade-union plans by industry.....		Sept. 647-52
Collective agreements. Proportion of contracts providing for, and summary of provisions as to length of period, eligibility requirements, conditional rights, pay, timing, and conditions resulting in forfeiture of right, 1940.....		Nov. 1070-7
Company plans (Southern Calif.), summary by type, 1940.....		Sept. 648-50
Ship clerks (dock), San Francisco. Arbitration award and section added to agreement, 1940 (text).....		Nov. 1086-93
Shipbuilding. Collective-agreement provisions, summary.....		Sept. 604-5
Trade-union plans (Southern Calif.), summary by industry, 1940.....		Sept. 650-2
Vacations with pay, foreign countries:		
Cuba (Habana). Candy industry, provisions.....		Sept. 729
Finland. Law of April 21, 1939, provisions.....		July 38
France. Decrees of November 10, 1939, and April 13, 1940, provisions.....		July 38-40
— Time due but not granted in 1939 to be paid for (decree issued November 10, 1939).....		July 38
Germany (Westfalen-Niederrhein). Domestic servants, provisions for.....		Oct. 911
Veteran placement. Toledo (Ohio) employment-security-center plan, and results, 1940.....		Nov. 1120-2
Vital statistics. Death rates and causes, 1939 (Metropolitan Life Ins. Co. records).....		Sept. 681-4
Vocational education, United States:		
Airplane pilots, civilian. Training program of U. S. Civil Aeronautics Authority.....		July 80-4
Youth. Problems connected with training programs (California).....		Oct. 895-7
Vocational education, foreign countries:		
Canada. Apprentice training in factories and technical schools in acceleration of war effort.....		Oct. 876-7
— Technical training for war industries, registration by courses, as of July 1940.....		Oct. 856-7
Great Britain. War Workers, centers for training.....		Sept. 574-5
Peru (Lima). Textile technology, school of, opened in 1940.....		Aug. 313
Wage and hour law. (See Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.)		
Wage payment:		
Aircraft manufacturing. Collective agreements, provisions, summary.....		Aug. 292-3
Shipbuilding industry. Collective agreements, provisions, summary.....		Sept. 601-2
Wage rates. (See Wages and hours.)		
Wages and hours, United States:		
Agriculture. Average rates, monthly and daily, with and without board, by geographic division, 1910-14 average, July 1939, and April and July 1940.....		Sept. 726-8
— Monthly and daily rates with and without board, whole country, years 1929, 1932, and 1939, specified periods 1939 and 1940; by geographical district, specified periods 1939 and 1940; and length of workday, by geographic district, specified periods 1939 and 1940.....		July 183-5, 187
Aircraft manufacturing. Minimum rates specified in 9 collective agreements.....		Aug. 292

Wages and hours, United States—Continued.

	Page
Army and Navy (U. S. Government), enlisted personnel. Monthly rates, allowances, and retirement rates.....	July 1-4
Building trades. Average union rates, by occupation, size of city and region, overtime and Sunday rates and weekly hours, by occupation, June 1, 1940; indexes, by year, 1907 to 1940.....	Nov. 1224-50
— Summary of Bureau of Labor Statistics' study, June 1, 1940, scope and method, and definitions.....	Nov. 1221-4
Canneries, vegetable. Weekly hours and rates of minors under 18.....	Nov. 1136-7
Carpet and rug industry. Wool, including carpet yarns; paper-fiber and grass; and cotton; hourly and weekly rates, by sex, skill, and occupation; and weekly hours; 1939.....	July 164-83
Clothing industry (women's and children's). Hourly earnings by branch of industry, occupation, and unionization; weekly hours and earnings by branch of industry.....	Oct. 901-7
Coffee industry (Puerto Rico). Farms, crushing mills, and roasting plants, weekly hours and hourly and weekly earnings, by occupation, 1938-39.....	Aug. 446-7
Doctors. (See Wages and hours, U. S.; Physicians.)	
Embroideries industry. Hourly and weekly rates and weekly hours, by region, product, occupation, and sex, and earnings of office and home workers.....	Dec. 1503-24
Fertilizer industry. Rates by region, size of community, and size of company, 1938.....	Dec. 1527
Foundries, gray-iron and malleable-iron. Hourly and weekly earnings and weekly hours, by State, skill, sex, and occupation, 1938 and 1939.....	Nov. 1207-12
Hawaii. Racial origin of owners and managers, relation to rates.....	Dec. 1314
— Trends 1930-40, and perquisites granted.....	Dec. 1314-16
Iron and steel industry. Annual earnings, 1937, by geographical region, skill, and number of months employed during year.....	Oct. 823-33
— Hourly rates and weekly hours and earnings, by department, region, occupation, and skill, April 1938.....	Sept. 709-26
— Hourly rates by department, region, division, branch, skill, and sex, April 1938.....	Aug. 411-42
— Negro workers' earnings April 1938 compared with earnings of white workers.....	Nov. 1139-49
Iron foundries. (See Wages and hours, U. S.; Foundries.)	
Leather products (miscellaneous) industry. Hourly earnings, by skill, sex, and unionization, November and December 1939.....	Oct. 989-94
Libraries. Cities over 10,000. Minimum and maximum annual rates, by occupation, summary as of November 1, 1939.....	Aug. 444
— (U. S. and Canadian cities over 200,000 population). Annual rates, minimum and maximum, by city and occupation, as of November 1, 1939.....	Aug. 442-3
— (University, college and high school). Annual rates, minimum and maximum, by occupation (larger institutions also by State), as of May 1, 1939.....	Aug. 444-6
Luggage industry. Hourly rates, by skill, sex, unionization, and product, November and December 1939.....	Oct. 976-87
Machine-shop employees. Hourly and weekly earnings, and weekly hours, by skill, product, occupation, and State, and overtime rates, 1938 and 1939.....	Nov. 1213-19
Manufacturing and nonmanufacturing establishments. Wage-rate changes, by month, July 15 to September 15, 1940.....	Nov. 1273-4; Dec. 1592-3
Manufacturing, mining and steam railroads. Changes throughout period 1909-39, and causes, summary of BLS study (Bowden).....	Sept. 517-44
Meat-packing industry. Rates by region, size of company, skill, and sex, December 1937.....	Dec. 1527
Minimum rates, establishment of, under Wage and Hour law. (See specific industry, under Minimum wage.)	
Negro workers. Iron and steel industry, compared with those of white workers, by branch, region, skill, occupation, April 1938.....	Nov. 1139-49
— Virginia industries. Earnings compared with those of white workers, by sex.....	Nov. 1149-50
Physicians. Gross annual incomes, 1939, résumé of survey by Medical Economics, Inc.	Nov. 1250-2
Printing trades, book and job, and newspaper. Rates union, June 1, 1940, by city and occupation; indexes by year 1907-40.....	Dec. 1475-1502
— Summary of Bureau of Labor Statistics' study, June 1, 1940, scope and method, and definitions.....	Dec. 1471-5
Public policies relating to, changes in, 1909-39.....	Sept. 517-44
Puerto Rico. Coffee industry, farms, crushing mills, and roasting plants, weekly hours and hourly and weekly earnings, by occupation, 1938-39.....	Aug. 446-7
— Needlework industry, average hourly earnings, by sex, 1939-40.....	Dec. 1332-3
Size of enterprise as factor in rates paid in selected industries.....	Dec. 1525-9
Woman workers. Clothing industry (women's and children's). Hourly earnings, by branch of industry, occupation, and unionization; weekly hours and earnings by branch of industry.....	Oct. 901-7
— March 1940, compared with those of men.....	Sept. 640-2

Wages and hours, foreign countries:

	Page
Argentina (Buenos Aires). Meat industry, average monthly rates.....	July 187-8
Bolivia. Industry, commerce, and mining. Percentage increases effective October 1, 1939.....	July 188-9
Canada. Agriculture, average monthly and yearly rates, by Province, and by sex, 1929, 1933, and 1936-39.....	July 192-3
— Fire departments. (<i>See under</i> Wages and hours, foreign countries: Canada: Public service.)	
— Manufacturing industries, average annual earnings by year, 1933 and 1936-38.....	Oct. 876
— Manufacturing industries (40 combined), real wages, average by year, 1931-37.....	Aug. 449
— Manufacturing, rates, average, by industries (40) and sex, 1937, and for all industries combined, by year, 1931-37.....	Aug. 448-9
— Public service, fire departments, annual rates by occupation and cities (57), as of January 1940.....	Aug. 449-51
— Public service, teachers, annual salaries, 1939, by type of school, sex, and Province; elementary and secondary schools, by cities.....	Nov. 1252-3
— Summary, and indexes of rates, 1929, 1933, and 1936-39, by industry.....	July 189, 190
— Teachers, annual salaries, 1939, by Provinces and cities.....	Nov. 1252-3
— (British Columbia). Weekly average rates and hours, adult males, by industry, 1929, 1938, and 1939.....	Oct. 995-6
— (Ottawa, Toronto, Vancouver). Building trades, 1938 and 1939, by occupation.....	July 190
— (Ottawa, Toronto, Vancouver). Printing trades, 1938 and 1939, by occupation.....	July 191
— (Ottawa, Toronto, Vancouver). Street railways, 1938 and 1939, by occupation.....	July 191
— (Vancouver and Winnipeg). Libraries, annual rates, by occupation.....	Aug. 443
Chile. Average daily rate by industries (10), December 1939, and years 1937-39.....	July 193-4
— Average monthly income, typical worker's family, by year 1928-39.....	Oct. 1022-3
China (Chungking). Increase as result of war conditions.....	Nov. 1082-3
Costa Rica. Average daily rates, day and night work.....	Nov. 1253-4
Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 878-9
— (Habana). Candy industry, 1940.....	Sept. 729
Denmark. Industrial workers, average hourly rates by location, sex, and skill, 1939.....	Aug. 452
El Salvador. Public service, Government workers, monthly rates, by occupation.....	Aug. 452-3
Estonia. Manufacturing industries, hourly rates, March 1940, and decrease in real wages from March 1939.....	Sept. 729-30
Germany. (East Prussia). Rules of May 17, 1940, differences between standards for German and non-German workers.....	Aug. 313-14
— (Hessen). Malt factories, weekly rates, by skill and age.....	Oct. 996-7
— (Rheinland). Domestic servants, compulsory year, by age and economic class of employer.....	Oct. 910
— (Westfalen-Niederrhein). Domestic servants, payment in kind.....	Oct. 911
Great Britain. Agriculture and other industries, rates increased, 1940.....	Sept. 577
— Changes under war conditions, March 18, 1939, to September 23, 1939, and March 16, 1940.....	Nov. 1083-5
— (England and Wales). Agricultural Wages Board, minimum rate fixed by, 1940.....	Aug. 418-19
Haiti. Adult men, daily rates, and minimum for public service.....	Aug. 453
— Public service, minimum rate set by labor law, August 10, 1934.....	Aug. 453
Italy. Increase, March 1940, through worker and employer agreements.....	Aug. 306-7
Netherlands. Metal workers, January 1939 and 1940, by geographical district and skill.....	July 195
New Zealand. Mobilized men, rates of pay and allotments to and allowances for dependents.....	July 32
Sweden. Printing trades, rate increase provided by collective agreement retroactive to July 1, 1940, and relation to cost-of-living index.....	Nov. 1254-5
Switzerland. Daily and hourly rates, by industry and sex, male workers by skill, 1939.....	Sept. 730-1
Wartime conditions:	
Canada. Employment increase in September 1940.....	Dec. 1358
— Skilled-labor shortage, competition between industries discussed by Minister of Labor.....	Dec. 1359-60
Great Britain. Wage and employment changes, March 18, 1939, to September 23, 1939, and March 16, 1940.....	Nov. 1083-5
Wartime policies:	
Australia. Apprentice training and reinstatement provisions.....	Oct. 854-5
Canada. Accident-prevention activities, continued by order in council.....	Dec. 1362
— Bread and flour price-fixing order of August 6, 1940, rescinded September 6, 1940.....	Nov. 1078
— Bread prices fixed by order of Wartime Prices and Trade Board, August 5, 1940.....	Oct. 858
— Civilian registration of skilled and semiskilled workers for industrial war work, 1940.....	July 30
— Contracts and munition orders to September 1940, and construction of Government-owned munition plants.....	Dec. 1359

Wartime polices—Continued.

	Page
Canada. Housing shortage and need for Government aid.....	Dec. 1358
— Human Resources, Material Resources, Voluntary Services, Publicity—divisions established in National War Services Department.....	Dec. 1360-1
— Income War Tax Act amended, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 858
— Industrial-development program, nature of projects and effects upon national and war economy.....	Nov. 1080
— Military training, regulations under National Resources Mobilization Act, and list of persons excepted.....	Nov. 1081
— Mobilization of national resources, including registration, under laws of June 21 and July 12, and order in council of July 2, 1940.....	Sept. 580-2
— National Labor Supply Council, function and personnel.....	Aug. 304
— National Resources Mobilization Act, June 21, 1940, provisions.....	Sept. 580
— National War Services Department. Divisions (4) established, and their functions.....	Dec. 1360-1
— Oils Administrator, Machine Tool Controller, and Power Controller, appointed under Wartime Prices and Trade Board.....	Dec. 1361
— Older workers, increasing employment of in skilled trades.....	Nov. 1082
— Price controls by Dominion Wartime Prices and Trade Board.....	Oct. 857-8
— Privately owned plants "harnessed to war needs".....	Nov. 1080
— Registration, national, under National Resources Mobilization Act, August 19 to 21, 1940.....	Oct. 855-6
— Reinstatement of employees called out for military training, regulatory provisions (text).....	Nov. 1082
— Rentals, maximum, for housing accommodations, subject to fixing by Wartime Prices and Trade Board, under orders in council of December 5, 1939, and September 11, 1940.....	Nov. 1078-80
— Seasonal industries and military training.....	Dec. 1360
— Summary of provisions of order in council approved June 19, 1940.....	Aug. 303-4
— Training, technical, for war industries, registration by courses, as of July 1940.....	Oct. 856-7
— Training workers and dilution of labor, plans for, and specific provisions in aircraft manufacturing.....	July 27-9
— Training youth for war industries, summary for year ended September 1940.....	Nov. 1080-1
— Wartime Industries Control Board constituted under order in council July 2, 1940; functions and powers.....	Sept. 581-2
— Woman workers, advisability of recruiting for industry.....	July 29
Denmark. Emergency legislation of May 28, 1940, to meet conditions after German invasion.....	Sept. 582-4
Finland. Defense and war-risk legislation, 1939, summary of.....	Dec. 1442-3
Germany. Forced-labor service, discipline provided by order March 12, 1940.....	Sept. 584
Great Britain. Evacuated children, billeting allowances for, effective May 31, 1940.....	Sept. 579
— Labor Supply Board established, 1940.....	July 32
— Occupational census of workers employed, April 1940.....	July 30-1
— Unemployment insurance; labor dilution; hours; training centers; hiring; employment and remuneration of woman workers; arbitration; wages and cost of living; governmental administration; supply control.....	Sept. 572-9
Italy. Overtime permitted, family allowances increased and extended, prices fixed, and wages increased, since outbreak of war.....	Aug. 305-7
New Zealand. Family allowances and rates of pay for armed forces other than regular military, established.....	July 32
Welfare work, United States:	
Banks. Activities summarized.....	Aug. 318-19
Prison inmates. Industrial training activities (survey by U. S. Attorney General, résumé).....	Nov. 1156-7
Welfare work, foreign countries:	
Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 881
Egypt. Village reconstruction, experiment by educational, social, and Government agencies, begun in 1939.....	July 43-5
"White-collar" workers. Exemptions from overtime provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act redefined October 14, 1940.....	Nov. 1202-3
Wholesale prices, United States. Indexes, monthly and weekly changes, May to October 1940, and yearly changes by classes of commodities, 1926-39.....	July 229-33;
	Aug. 502-6; Sept. 744-9; Oct. 1030-4; Nov. 1288-92; Dec. 1539-43
Woman workers, United States:	
Defense industries. Standards for employment summarized by U. S. Women's Bureau.....	Sept. 564-7
Domestic service. New York State Employment Service placements, by occupation, July 1938 to June 1939.....	Oct. 907-9
Earnings and hours compared with those of men.....	Sept. 640-2

Woman workers, United States—Continued.

Equal pay for same work as that done by men. Michigan statute upheld by State supreme court.....	Page Dec. 1437-8
Married. Economic position (occupations, earnings, annual incomes, number of dependents, and reasons for working).....	Dec. 1371-4
Night work in restaurants. Entertainers, inclusion of under Connecticut prohibitory law upheld (State Sup. Ct. of Errors).....	Oct. 951
Woman workers, foreign countries:	
Cuba. Constitution approved July 5, 1940, provisions.....	Oct. 879
Great Britain. Restrictions against in collective agreements relaxed temporarily; remuneration provisions; waiving of probationary period; disputes concerning to be settled by conciliation machinery.....	Sept. 575-6 July 200; Aug. 463; Sept. 708; Oct. 973; Nov. 1196; Dec. 1468
Woolen and worsted goods. Labor turn-over, monthly rates, April to September 1940.....	Nov. 1206
Woolen industry. Learners, employment of, provisions under Fair Labor Standards Act...	
Work Projects Administration (U. S. Government). Employment on WPA-operated and other projects, each month July 1938 to June 1939; and by type of project, wage class, and skill, June 21, 1939.....	Sept. 586-8
Workers' education:	
Apprentice training. System of New York Shipbuilding Corporation, features of.....	Sept. 609
Banks. Activities, including American Institute of Banking.....	Aug. 317
Working conditions:	
Defense-work standards to comply with Federal, State, and local statutes (National Defense Advisory Commission) announcement September 1, 1940.....	Oct. 850-1
Cuba (Habana). Candy industry, 1940.....	Sept. 729
Workmen's compensation, United States. Court decisions concerning. (See under Decisions of courts.)	
Workmen's compensation, foreign countries:	
Great Britain. Law amended and liberalized, 1940; new provisions.....	Oct. 888-90
— Percent of cases to total persons employed, by industry, 1934, 1937, 1938, and analysis of 1938 cases.....	Oct. 890-1
— Statistics, by industry, 1934, 1937, and 1938.....	Oct. 890-1
Netherland India. Law of 1939, provisions.....	July 112-13
— Schedule showing percent of daily wage payable in permanent partial-disability cases.....	July 113
Youth, United States:	
Career conferences (New York City), yearly since 1936, and related activities.....	Oct. 897-8
Coal-mining occupations. 18-year age minimum established under Fair Labor Standards Act, September 1, 1940; provisions.....	Oct. 892
Economic problems of, as they affect other groups (California).....	Oct. 894-7
Employment problem in relation to that of adults (California).....	Oct. 895
Labor standards. International Association of Governmental Labor Officials, resolution concerning, 1940 (text).....	Oct. 875
National Administration of (U. S. Government). Guidance and placement activities, including pamphlet publication and employment service for juniors.....	July 84-5
— Junior employment services, activities March 1936 to July 1940.....	Sept. 636
— Negro youth, educational aid given, 1937-39.....	Aug. 354-5
— Out-of-school work program, activities, and allotments for (by States), 1940-41.....	Sept. 636-9
— State campaigns for jobs (Illinois, Mississippi, Iowa).....	Nov. 1133-6
— Student-work program, 1940-41.....	Oct. 893-4
Negro. Employment, relief, and educational statuses in depression period.....	Aug. 352-5
Ohio. Job opportunities for high-school and college graduates, findings of survey by Ohio Unemployment Compensation Bureau.....	Oct. 898-900
Unemployed. Job campaigns by Job Hunters of Boston, East Side Job Council (N. Y. C.), Under Thirty Club (Houston), 18 to 30 Associates, (San Francisco).....	Nov. 1128-33
Youth, Canada. Vocational training for wartime industries, summary for year ended September 1940.....	Nov. 1080-1

This Issue in Brief

Pay of Enlisted Men in Army and Navy.

Enlisted men entering the United States Army and Navy receive an entrance salary of \$21 monthly. In addition, they are supplied with food, lodging, and free medical and dental attention. The maximum base pay for the highest rating—master sergeant in Army and chief petty officer in Navy—is \$126 monthly. This, however, is subject to increase on a fixed schedule, according to length of service, up to \$157.50. Extra payment is made for hazardous and highly skilled work, special assignments, and medals received for distinguished service. The highest retirement pay is \$133.88 per month. Page 1.

Labor Costs, 1919 to 1939.

Labor costs per unit of output, which tend to rise with increased wage rates and to decline with increased labor productivity, were much lower in 1939 than during most of the period beginning in 1919. It is particularly noteworthy that substantial reductions in unit labor cost characterized industries connected closely with the national defense program. Between 1919 and 1923, unit labor costs fell 23 percent in blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills; 29 percent in petroleum refining; 36 percent in chemicals; 10 percent in cement; and 11 percent in paper and pulp. Between 1923, following the post-war readjustments, and 1939, unit labor

costs fell 20 percent in blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills; 40 percent in petroleum refining; 22 percent in chemicals; 71 percent in rayon; 26 percent in cement; and 30 percent in paper and pulp. In some of the industries, unit labor costs in 1939 were less than half as high as in 1919. Page 33.

Industrial Injuries in 1939.

About 16,400 persons in industry were killed or permanently and totally incapacitated in 1939, about 109,000 suffered partial but permanent impairments, and nearly 1½ million were temporarily disabled. These figures are national estimates, covering self-employed as well as employed workers. For a group of nearly 27,000 establishments with more than 4½ million workers, the 1939 frequency rates were generally above those for 1938. For the manufacturing group of industries, the rate increased from 15.07 to 15.43.

The disability distribution for 1939 remained unchanged from that of 1938. Out of every 1,000 injuries, each year had 6 deaths and permanent total disabilities, 56 permanent partial injuries, and 938 temporary total disabilities.

Revised frequency rates from 1926 through 1938 show decided decreases over this period, and in all types of disabilities. The over-all experience indicates a decrease of disabling injuries of 25 percent since 1926. Page 86.

Federal Housing of Armament Workers.

With the expansion of armament production, existing housing shortages are likely to be intensified. In addition, erection of new plants outside centers of population where they are less vulnerable to attack may bring new housing problems. In carrying out the housing program during 1917-18, the Federal Government pioneered in the use of public funds for building dwellings to house civilian shipyard and munition workers. By aiding utility companies in enlarging their transportation facilities, it was often possible to bring the needed employees to work daily without the delay and expense that would other-

wise have been involved in providing shelter nearby. Page 5.

Hours of Work of Municipal Firemen.

In order to insure adequate fire protection at all times in a city, there must be a large enough force of firemen on duty at all times to care for the ordinary demands and to meet emergencies. To meet this situation different systems of operation with various periods of duty have been developed, the system used in a particular city depending largely upon its size and financial condition. These various systems are described, and the system in operation in 367 cities having a population of 25,000 or over is given, in the article on page 13.

This Issue in Brief

Employment of Aliens.

The Federal Alien Registration Act of 1940 requires the registration and fingerprinting of all aliens, but does not in itself affect the employment of aliens. There is, however, a considerable body of legislation, both Federal and State, restricting the employment of aliens. Thus, in the past few years, Congress has prohibited such employment by certain Government agencies, and their employment by aviation factories producing airplanes for the Federal Government has been drastically limited. Page 245.

Food Expenditures of Wage Earners.

Most families of wage earners and clerical workers buy enough food to keep them from feeling hungry, but a large proportion of them do not spend sufficient to secure the amount and kinds of food needed for good health for all the family and for normal growth of the children. The average annual expenditure for food of all the families in a survey by the Bureau was \$508 or about one-third of the total current expense. About 75 percent of the white families and 32 percent of the Negro families spent enough to buy the "low-cost good diet" of the Bureau of Home Economics. Page 250

Accidents in Iron and Steel Industry.

Industrial injuries in the iron and steel industry, as reflected in the experience of 1,861 departments with 842 million employee-hours in 1939, was somewhat better in 1939 than in 1938. Against 9.96 injuries per million hours worked in 1938, there were

9.71 in 1939. The total of disabling injuries in the group surveyed increased by 29 percent, but the employee-hours worked increased by nearly 33 percent. The decrease in injury rates was general throughout the various departments studied. Only in the service and maintenance group was there an increase in the frequency rate. For all departments, there were 14 deaths or permanent total disabilities in every 1,000 injuries in 1939, as against 15 in 1938. Permanent partial injuries increased from 86 to 92, with an average time loss per case of 828 days in 1939. The average duration per temporary total disability, however, decreased from 34 days in 1938 to 29 in 1939. Page 322.

Public Housing in the United States.

With the exception of the building that was done to house munition and shipbuilding labor during the World War in 1917-18, the Federal Government had not concerned itself with public housing until 1932. In that year the Reconstruction Finance Corporation was empowered to issue self-liquidating building loans for limited-dividend corporations. Direct aid was given to low-cost housing in the following year, both in aiding distressed home owners and in constructing dwellings in urban and rural areas with Federal funds. Assistance has gradually been extended until at present, help is afforded families of the lowest income in the form of housing subsidy and families of moderate income have the opportunity of obtaining loans at low interest rates. Page 267.

Hourly Earnings in the Iron and Steel Industry.

An outstanding feature of the wage structure of the iron and steel industry is the relatively small proportion of workers in the low-earnings classes. Taking the skilled, semiskilled, and unskilled employees together, only a tenth (10.4 percent) received less than 62.5 cents an hour and no more than 2.7 percent earned under 52.5 cents in April 1938. By contrast, fully two-fifths (41.6 percent) of the iron and steel workers earned 82.5 cents or more and the earnings of nearly one-fifth (18.8 percent) exceeded \$1 an hour. The over-all average for all employees in April 1938 was 83.9 cents an hour. Page 421.

Family Allowances in the United States Army and Navy in the World War.

The families of enlisted men in the United States military and naval forces in 1917-21 not only received allotments from the pay of such men but were also granted supplementary money allowances by the Government. The amounts of these allowances varied according to the class and number of the dependents. For example, under specified conditions and exceptions, the monthly allowance for a wife when there were no children was \$15; for a wife and 1 child, \$25; for a wife and 2 children, \$32.50, with \$5 for each additional child. An act of 1917 appropriated \$141,000,000 for this purpose. Later on additional sums were provided. Page 454.

Labor Decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court, 1939-40.

The U. S. Supreme Court, during its 1939-40 term, rendered a number of decisions of great importance to labor. In most cases the decisions were favorable to labor, and those involving the National Labor Relations Act generally upheld the rulings of the National Labor Relations Board. In the now famous *Apex case* the Court held that the Sherman Antitrust Act was applicable to labor unions only in cases involving combinations and conspiracies entered into for the purpose of interfering with commercial competition. Page 356.

Employment Prospects in Tung-Oil Industry.

Jobs for 200,000 persons would be made available by the expansion of tung- or China-wood-oil production in the United States to a level adequate to meet the demand for such oil in this country. This estimate is given in a recent report on this industry in Mississippi, made by the National Youth Administration of that State. It is also forecast that industries in the United States will ultimately absorb 400,000,000 pounds of tung oil per annum as compared with 87,415,000 pounds in 1938. This highly important ingredient in paints and varnishes is also used in several hundred other industrial products. Almost all of the tung oil used in this country now comes from China. Page 308.

This Issue in Brief

Two Years of Labor Standards Act.

One of the two major objectives of the Fair Labor Standards Act will be reached on October 24, 1940, when the basic workweek is reduced to 40 hours. Although employers are not required to reach the second objective of a 40-cent minimum hourly wage, or such lower rate not less than 30 cents an hour as may be fixed by the Administrator, until 1945, wage orders establishing rates of pay above the present 30-cent statutory minimum had been issued covering 10 industries at the end of July. By that date industry committees had recommended higher rates of pay for 4 additional industries, and one of these recommendations was included in a wage order during August. Low-paid workers benefited in 11 industries—apparel, hat, hosiery, knitted outerwear, knitted underwear, leather, millinery, paper, shoe, textile, and wool. Page 551.

Vacation Practice in California.

The practice of giving vacations with pay appears to be fairly general among employers in the Los Angeles area. An inquiry made by the California Institute of Technology revealed that 425 of 432 reporting firms intended to give paid vacations to some of their employees in 1940. Almost one-half (101,098) of the 206,750 persons employed in 1939 by the reporting companies were eligible for such vacations in that year.

Of 143 local labor unions replying to the inquiry, 111 were affiliated with national organizations favoring the paid-vacation principle; 103 had some members receiving vacations; and 64

had been able to obtain 580 agreements providing paid vacations. Page 647.

Accidents in Lumber Industry.

A special survey of disabling injuries in three related lumber industries showed that 388 logging establishments had an average of 105 injuries per million hours worked, or 173 for every 1,000 workers in 1939. For 857 sawmills, the frequency rate was 49, and for 902 planing mills, 33. Logging, with the most severe experience, had 15 fatalities and 32 permanent impairments in every 1,000 injuries. About half of the injuries in the three industries were due to workers being struck by or striking against objects.

In both logging and sawmills, the largest establishments generally had the poorest accident records. In planing mills there was little difference between small and large establishments. A study of individual accidents indicates that many of them could have been prevented through elementary safety precautions. Page 663.

Wages, Hours, and Productivity.

Average hourly earnings in manufacturing, mining, and steam railroads combined increased from 20.7 cents in 1909 to 66.1 cents in 1939. When changes in cost of living are considered, hourly earnings somewhat more than doubled. The average worker in these industries had about 2½ hours more leisure per working day in 1939 than in 1909. At the same time, in terms of things a dollar could buy, for every dollar the average weekly pay envelope

contained in 1909, it had \$1.47 in 1939. Output per man-hour increased more than wages. In manufacturing industries, real hourly earnings were 110.5 percent higher in 1939 than in 1909 in contrast to a rise of 163.6 percent in man-hour output. Page 517.

Hours-of-Labor Laws.

By the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, the Federal Government assumed jurisdiction over the working hours of employees of private industries engaged in the production of goods for interstate commerce. Federal regulation in this field had previously covered employment under public contracts, on public works, and in interstate transportation. State legislation regulating the hours of labor of men has been somewhat limited in scope. However, State regulation of women's hours has been quite extensive, and only 4 States have failed to legislate on this point. Some 18 States prohibit night work for women in certain industries or occupations, but no prohibition of night work for men exists anywhere in the United States. Page 545.

British Labor, 1940.

British labor has been working a considerable amount of overtime in recent months in order to accelerate production of war materials. Paid vacations in essential industries have been postponed, training has been extended, women who have not previously worked in certain kinds of jobs have been engaged, and special machinery has been established for the arbitration of industrial disputes. Unemployment has decreased but still exists in Great Britain. Both wages and cost of living have continued to

rise. Additional regulations for the control and protection of labor became effective in the spring and summer of 1940 and Government departments were granted increased powers to coordinate the war effort. Page 572.

Credit Unions, 1939.

That some 2 million loans, amounting to \$240,500,000, were made by cooperative credit associations during 1939 is indicated by data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. At the end of the year there were 8,315 credit unions in existence in the United States, or over 1,000 more than at the end of the previous year. Every State in the Union was represented, and four States had more than 500 each. Data on 1939 operations, by States, are given on page 654.

Agreements in Shipbuilding.

An 8-hour day, 40-hour week is the prevailing working schedule established by most of the union agreements in the shipbuilding industry. Double time for overtime work is required in about half the agreements and time and one-half in the remainder. One-week vacations with pay are granted in 8 out of 28 agreements. In most of the agreements the union is recognized as the exclusive bargaining agency, but less than half provide for a closed union shop. In only 7 instances are strikes and lock-outs prohibited entirely during the life of the agreement. About half the agreements prohibit strikes until after the grievance machinery provided in the agreement has been fully utilized. Less than a third of the agreements provide for the final settlement of disputes by arbitration. Page 597.

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This Issue in Brief

Relation of Age to Industrial Injuries.

Opposition to the hiring of older workers, where the practice exists, has been predicated in part on the claim that they are worse accident risks than younger workers. An analysis of data covering nearly a million cases of industrial injuries both in the United States and in several foreign countries indicates that the older workers, on the average, are injured proportionately less frequently than the younger workers, although once injured, their injuries are likely to be more severe. The proportion of deaths increases sharply with advancing age; the percentage of permanent impairments is higher; and the healing period in temporary disabilities longer. Page 789.

Operations Under Public Contracts Act.

Contracts totaling over \$2,138,000,000 had been let under the terms of the Public Contracts Act up to the end of August. To labor engaged on Government work this meant the elimination of competition from child and convict labor, protection of health, safe working conditions, and payment at overtime rates equal to one and one-half regular hourly wages for work in excess of 8 hours a day and 40 hours a week. In addition, minimum wage rates had been established by determinations of the Secretary of Labor for employees of Government contractors in 31 industries. Among these industries aircraft and iron and steel are particularly important in view of the enlarged rearmament program. As armament production expands an increasing number of workers will bene-

fit under the terms of this legislation. Page 805.

Annual Earnings in Steel Industry.

Steelworkers who had jobs throughout the whole year earned an average of \$1,773 in 1937. A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics also revealed that the group of wage earners who had employment for 9 months or more averaged \$1,679, and those employed for 6 months or more averaged \$1,650. The average earnings for all employees who had any work during the year was \$1,628. The slight differences in earnings among the groups are an indication of the relatively favorable employment opportunities in the industry in 1937. Page 823.

Shift Operations Under Union Agreements.

The question of night work arises in many industries and trades. In those which directly serve the public, working schedules necessarily must be related to the prevailing consumer habits. In manufacturing and mining the question of shift operations has little direct relation to consumer habits but depends more upon the plans for utilization of production facilities or providing for necessary continuous operations. Employees, through their union organizations, have always attempted to regulate the operation of shifts to work the least possible disadvantage for those workers obliged to follow abnormal working schedules. An analysis of the various types of regulations embodied in union agreements is given on page 860.

Occupations of Job Seekers.

Some 5,100,000 persons were actively seeking work through the facilities of the Public Employment Service at the beginning of April 1940. An analysis of their applications revealed that 3,800,000 were men and 1,300,000 were women. Over 73 percent of the total were under 45 years of age, but nearly 20 percent in every occupational group were over that age. Data regarding these applicants are analyzed by industry, occupation, sex, and age on page 836.

Housing Legislation in the United States.

State housing legislation has been greatly extended as a result of Federal participation in a program to provide better living conditions. More than three-fourths of the States now have public housing authority laws and, in addition, 16 jurisdictions have authorized the organization of limited-dividend corporations. A number of States have also enacted slum-clearance legislation which authorizes municipalities to exercise their police power for the repairing, closing, alteration, or demolition of dwellings unfit for human habitation. This legislation has been held constitutional in 25 States, generally on the ground that the elimination of unsafe and

dilapidated houses is a legitimate exercise of the police power. Page 912.

Military Service Provisions in Union Agreements.

A number of recent union agreements include provisions regarding the seniority and reemployment rights of workers who leave their jobs to enter into military service. In some of the agreements the rights apply only if the United States is at war or in an emergency approximating war conditions. Some cover only workers who are conscripted; others include those who volunteer as well. Examples of provisions of this character are given on page 859.

Consumers' Cooperatives, 1939.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that there were at the end of 1939 some 4,350 retail distributive cooperatives with 925,000 members and sales of \$211,653,000. Associations providing services of various kinds—lodgings, meals, medical care, burial, housing, electricity, etc.—numbered, it is estimated, 914 and had a combined membership of over 576,000 and a business of \$5,815,000. The wholesale distributive associations providing supplies for the local associations had aggregate sales of nearly \$52,500,000. Data on the 1939 operations of the various types of cooperatives are given in the article on page 926.

DEC 26 '40

This Issue in Brief

Wage Earners and Loan Sharks.

The loan shark thrives best where there is no law to curb him or where the law is not vigorously enforced. A study made for the International Association of Governmental Labor Officials showed that in 12 States which had no special small-loan laws the amounts owed to loan sharks at the end of 1939 averaged \$6.98 per capita of population. In 10 jurisdictions with partially effective small-loan laws the average was \$2.57. In 27 States with effective laws vigorously enforced, however, the average per capita amount owed to loan sharks was only 19 cents. Rates of interest charged have been found to run as high as 1,350 percent per year. Although it is estimated that these lenders had outstanding loans amounting to only 7.3 percent of loans of all types of credit agencies combined, their charges formed 34.2 percent of the total loan charges. A discussion of the loan-shark problem from the point of view of the wage earner, and the legal remedies available, is given on page 1051.

Food and Cotton Stamp Plans.

The Surplus Marketing Administration of the Department of Agriculture is attacking the closely related problems of farm surpluses and inadequate consumption by low-income families through a food-stamp plan and a cotton-stamp plan, which provide for the distribution of surplus agricultural products through normal channels of retail trade. By means of these plans persons receiving public assistance are able to obtain surplus foods and cotton goods. It is estimated that 4,000,000 people will participate in the food

stamp plan during the next 12 months. Although neither plan was so intended, they have both become important in the defense program. Both plans serve to maintain the morale of that group of the population engaged in agriculture by enlarging the domestic market to replace foreign markets cut off by war. At the same time they contribute to the improvement of health in the Nation as a whole. Page 1060.

Labor Turn-Over in Machine-Tool Industry.

The machine-tool industry normally experiences more satisfactory turn-over rates than most other industries. The chief reasons are the opportunities for advance planning for all-year-round employment and the payment of wages usually sufficient to hold expert machinists. The current expansion in the industry shown by the larger accession rate and the lower lay-off rate is taking place almost entirely in the larger metal-cutting machine-tool and accessory plants. The increased quit rate reflects the greater job opportunities primarily at the centers of activity and the higher discharge rate points to the possibility that some of the new workers are not satisfactory. Page 1066.

Vacations With Pay in Union Agreements.

Approximately two million union members, or 25 percent of all organized wage earners in the United States, receive annual vacations with pay under collective agreements with their employers. The majority of these workers receive a maximum of 1 week's vacation with pay after 1 year's service with their employer. Approxi-

mately one-half million union members work under agreements which provide a 2-week maximum for all or part of the working force. Page 1070.

Union Wages and Hours in the Building Trades.

On June 1, 1940, the average union wage rate for all journeyman building trades in the 72 cities covered in the annual survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics was \$1.487 per hour. For union helpers and laborers the average was \$0.898 per hour. Double time was reported as the agreed-upon initial overtime rate in exactly half of the total quotations. Nearly all of the other quotations gave time and one-half as the initial overtime rate. Page 1221.

Cooperative Burial Associations.

Cooperative burial associations are of rather recent growth, being a development of about the last 15 years. They still number fewer than 40 and are found only in 5 Midwestern States. On the basis of reports to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, it is estimated that at the end of 1939 they had a total membership of 30,600 and did a combined business that year amounting to over \$189,000. A description of these associations and the basis on which they operate is given on page 1160.

Earnings in Machine Shops.

Earnings of machine-shop employees in the latter part of 1938 and early part of 1939 averaged 72.4 cents per

hour, the highest average—84.2 cents—being in the making of tractors. Skilled workers in all types of machine shops combined averaged 86.4 cents, with an average of 95.1 cents in the shops making tractors. Page 1213.

Handicapped Workers.

Approximately 2,200,000 of the estimated 4,000,000 handicapped persons in the United States are in the working ages 17 to 64, according to a report by a committee of the American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons. Although there are no reliable statistics showing the proportion within the working ages who are totally disabled, nor of the number who are employed, it was estimated, on the basis of such figures as were available, that at least 300,000 handicapped persons in the country are in need of self-supporting employment. The total annual increment of handicapped employable persons is estimated to be about 75,000. Page 1123.

Measuring Industrial Production.

The Federal Reserve Board's new index of industrial production indicates that the growth in the output of manufactures and minerals has been considerably greater than shown by the series previously in use. Thus, from 1919 to 1939, the new index shows a 50-percent rise in production, as compared with a 27-percent increase over the same period in the old index. Page 1197.

FEB 3 '41

This Issue in Brief

Labor Conditions in Hawaii.

To the average person the word Hawaii conveys two ideas—a tourist paradise and a very important military outpost. These ideas are not incorrect but are decidedly incomplete. This article (p. 1305) deals with the characteristics of the economy of the Islands and the position of labor in that economy. A second article will deal specifically with wages, hours of labor, and working conditions in the principal industries.

Puerto Rican Needlework Industry.

Approximately 39,000 home workers and 5,300 factory workers are employed in Puerto Rico in the needlework industry. Because of depressed conditions in the industry a special committee was appointed by the Administrator of the Wage and Hour Division of the United States Department of Labor to investigate conditions and recommend minimum wages for different branches of the industry. A report by the Wage and Hour Division for the special committee showed that health conditions among these workers were generally unfavorable as a result of low incomes, inadequate diet, and poor living conditions. Minimum wage rates were established as a result of the investigation and hearings held in Puerto Rico, on December 2, 1940. Page 1328.

Life Insurance Among Low-Income Families.

Life insurance as a means of saving is quite generally purchased by low-income groups. A recent study by the Securities and Exchange Commission covering 2,132 families living in industrial areas in metropolitan Boston,

showed that industrial insurance is by far the most important form of insurance sold to this type of family but that this is the most costly form of insurance. In many of the families a very high proportion of the family income was spent on insurance, in four cases 24 percent and over of the total income, while nearly 10 percent of the nonrelief families and 9 percent of the relief families paid insurance premiums in excess of 10 percent of their respective incomes. Page 1335.

Unemployment Insurance During Industrial Disputes.

According to the unemployment compensation laws of all the States, compensation is not provided for unemployment caused by labor disputes. In no States have the costs involved in compensating for unemployment of this type been taken into account in determining the probable expenditures from the funds. However, due to the different wording in the several laws, as well as the different interpretations made by the tribunals passing upon such claims, the reasons for disallowing payments in particular situations vary widely among the States. Such varying decisions are discussed on page 1375.

Union Wages in Printing Trades.

The average union wage rate per hour for book and job work in 72 cities on June 1, 1940, was \$1.131, and for newspaper work \$1.331. Full-time union hours averaged 39.5 per week under book and job agreements and 37.5 under newspaper agreements, with time and one-half almost universally specified as the rate of pay for excess hours. Page 1471.

Earnings in the Embroideries Industry, 1940.

The hourly earnings of embroidery-shop workers in the principal producing centers averaged 60.2 cents in March 1940, according to a field survey recently completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Over one-half of the wage earners surveyed were in New York City establishments. These workers averaged 70.2 cents an hour, as compared with 53.3 cents in Philadelphia, 46.8 cents in Chicago, and 45.9 cents in northern New Jersey. The variations in earnings among the four centers arise partly from differences in type of embroideries produced. Page 1503.

Wages in Large and Small Enterprises.

Workers in the plants of large companies have higher earnings than those in small companies, in those industries in which concentration of ownership centers control of a large share of the industry in a few companies. The industries covered included meat packing, iron and steel, electrical goods,

radio sets, explosives, soap, fertilizers, and chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff. Size of company appeared to be significant only in those industries in which a substantial share of the total business is done by a few companies. Page 1525.

Unemployment in Cincinnati.

The annual report on unemployment in Cincinnati prepared from a census by the Board of Education of that city shows that 13.31 percent of the employable population was unemployed in May 1940 as compared with 30.43 percent in May 1933 which represented the peak of unemployment in the past 12 years. A much higher ratio of unemployment was found among Negro workers than among white workers. In May 1933, 54.32 percent of the colored workers, as compared with 28.04 percent of the white, were totally unemployed, while in May 1940, only 10.69 percent of the white workers but 35.05 percent of the colored were without employment. Page 1367.

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

Bureau of Labor Statistics

- Problems of workmen's compensation administration—In the United States and Canada. Bulletin No. 672.
- Wages, hours, and working conditions in the building trades, June 1, 1939. Bulletin No. 674.
- Union wages, hours, and working conditions of motortruck drivers, June 1, 1939. Bulletin No. 676.

Children's Bureau

- Preliminary statements submitted to the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, January 18–20, 1940.
- The healthy well-nourished baby, birth to 1 year. Folder No. 16.
- The healthy well-nourished child, 1 to 6 years. Folder No. 17.
- The healthy well-nourished child, 6 to 16 years. Folder No. 18.
- Mother! Nurse your baby. Folder No. 19.
- Feeding your baby. Folder No. 20.

Division of Labor Standards

- Workers and National Defense.
- Qualifications for general labor law inspectors. Bulletin No. 38.
- Handbook of Federal labor legislation. Bulletin No. 39.
- Digest of State and Federal labor legislation. Bulletin No. 40.
- Recent progress in State labor legislation. Bulletin No. 42.

Women's Bureau

- Earnings and hours in Hawaii woman-employing industries. Bulletin No. 177.

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